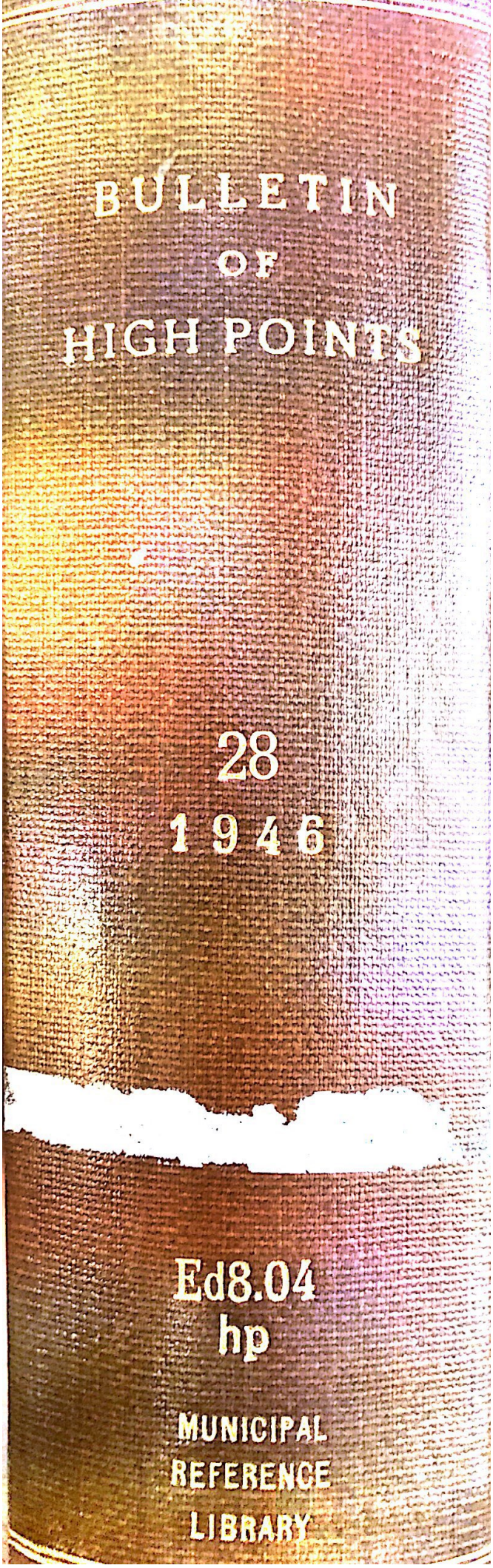


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HIGH POINTS

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Thoughts on The Harvard Report

EDWARD REICH, Consumer Education

This is a remarkable report. With its sharp insights and deep feelings this quintessence of a dozen brilliant minds can't fail to be a fillip to every teacher-philosopher. Teachers, used to something of baser metal in educational reading, get the rare sensation "Here is some real Aristotelian golden mean." The study quickens the blood and inspirits the overburdened teacher's almost defunct soul . . . and then, it just peters out. That's no way to treat a friend.

The Harvard Committee was *"in quest of a concept of general education that would have validity for the free society which we cherish."* Like a quest in King Arthur's court, it is full of romance and moral adventure. Like Tennyson, the Committee describes it magnificently. Like Gareth, the Committee fights a masterly battle with its Morning Star, Noonday Sun, and Evening Star. Like Gareth, the Committee finds Night too easy. The intellectual battle for general education in a free society is won by moral and intellectual superiority at every step but the last—in the classroom. *There they lose.*

QUEST FOR UNITY. Wise men recognize that all educational philosophy is rooted in human nature and human values, even though that's a little on the anthropomorphic side. But Man, imperfect citizen of the universe, does seek perfection. In that search he is one, but in terms of his individuality he is divided and many. Education that is unwise can stress the *"many"* to the detriment of *One-ness.* So we seek common aims to bind men together, recognizing that there is essentially no one body of knowledge, no one system of instruction valid for all. Perhaps the latter is not too serious a factor in our efforts to get people to think effectively, to make relevant judgments, to discriminate among values, to communicate their thoughts. But can democracy remain effective without the sharing of certain common outlooks and traits amidst people of varying gifts, opportunities and interests?

The quest for unity appears to grow out of this sound concept of freedom: *"Men are not in any genuine sense free to choose unless the fullest possible truth is presented to them"* . . . *"Freedom is not permission to flout the truth but to regulate your life in a knowledge of it."* And these truths are found in the humanities, in the

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social studies, in science and mathematics, where we have received a heritage from the past, where the reaction of the individual mind upon this heritage enhances preent experience, where the mind opens outward to the universal realm of value.

CONSERVATIVE SOLUTION. Then the book loses altitude rapidly because the golden mean we started with gets to be more and more loaded with lead. As the lofty vision recedes we are asked to transfer our by-now-surrendered affections to a rather conservative continuation of present day practises and courses. We ask, *"What happened to the three inevitable areas of man's life: his physical world, his corporate life, his inner visions and standards?"* And by the end of the book the answer is, "They became courses in English, math, history, art, physics, etc." Too bad. But the book stirs up a lot of concomitant thinking not the special concern of the authors but of great concern to the teacher facing the music. It stirred my thinking.

TOO MUCH ADMINISTRATION. The evil in modern education lies in the superiority of administration over curriculum. *"Millions for administration but not one cent for curriculum"* is only moderately unfair. The best brains in our schools look to administrative jobs for promotion. Much as curriculum may mean to them at first, pretty soon they're swamped with administrative detail. We have a hundred well or badly paid administrators in America for every curriculum philosopher.

DEFINITION OF TERMS. General education in a free society needs more looking into. What do you mean by *"general"?* What is "general" among human beings? Is science or math or history "general"? Or do men generally eat, wear clothing, live in homes, want good health, a good income, a happy environment? Doesn't man evolve and doesn't man's life revolve in terms of problems evoked by physical and moral things right in and around him. Child and philosopher do not *transcend reality.* They're different in how they *use* it.

That brings us to the crux of the matter. You can talk educational philosophy, psychology, and "ology" to infinity, but unless it's *education in the wise use of what's in our daily world,* it will have no *general* value. Unless it's education in choice-making and

action, it's the Titans piling Pelion on Ossa, then both on Mt. Olympus, and never reaching heaven anyway.

But, you declare, how materialistic! Nonsense! *Wise use,* more than anything you can think of, requires understanding, concepts of values, a fine moral sense. And practically speaking, what do you achieve when you teach what is promptly forgotten?

The areas of education are not *courses* but *the common problems of living*—the problems concerned with food, clothing, home life, community life, health, leisure time, money management, use of our social ideals and social wealth.

A TWOFOLD FUNCTION. General education in a free society rests on human beings and human values. People live twofold in modern civilization. They live as producers. They live as consumers. They normally prefer the consumer or *user* function in life because nothing can give much more common happiness than a breadth of use of the wonderful things in our essentially fine world. As producers, the great bulk of men are doomed to frustration and drudgery as civilization becomes more mechanized and specialized. There's your best answer to "Why do we need more and more general education of the kind that stresses *use* (consumer aspects) of the modern world?"

It is a debatable question whether more producer education puts us on the right road. We are not consumers *because* we're producers. We're producers *because we want to be better and richer consumers.* We give consumer the priority. There is no reason why the best guidance to become an efficient producer can't come out of general (consumer) education.

The book will serve its greatest purpose if it shows us all up in two ways:

1. *We've become a nation of great methodologists (in factory and school), but we've a long way to go as philosophers.*
2. *Even when we achieve philosophical stature, a little poetry in our souls, some imagination, understanding and a sense of values, we've a long way to go before we get into the classroom with the stuff.*

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The Textbook in Post-War Education

LLOYD W. KING*

We are now a part of the post-war world. It is hard for us to realize we are in that period we talked about and dreamed about during the prosecution of the war. We dreamed great dreams for education then, but objectives and dreams are realized through specifics. It is appropriate that we consider some specifics as we plan for a realization of our dreams about education. This article has to do with a specific—the lowly but essential textbook.

COMING EXPANSION. Those of us who are engaged in education believe that the schools, because of the supplementary nature of their function, will be called upon to assume greater responsibilities. We recall that former wars were followed by expansion in education and by significant changes in educational emphases. Pronouncements as to the functions of education and the nature of the school necessary to carry out these functions are current. Many voices speak of educational programs, plans, practices, techniques, and procedures. From them there seems to be a general agreement that schools face immediately the problems of training veterans and re-training war production workers. There will be an increase in adult education to train adults so that they may become adjusted to the world about them, but particularly in order that they, as individuals, may understand the real need of, the beauties of, and the responsibilities of a democratic form of government.

On the elementary level the idea of the entirely child-centered school is yielding to the realization of the obligation of the school to help individuals learn fundamental techniques and skills, to realize their own ideals and to fit into a democratic social order. We are defining democracy as a way of living whereby men have individual worth, self-government, tolerance, and equality of opportunity. We are realizing that democracy will abide only through loyalty and energy on the part of individuals. On the secondary level we are endeavoring to train young people to live well with themselves and with others in a way that we call the American Way.

In the discussions of educational programs relatively little is heard about the role of textbooks; yet the child, the teacher, and the book have been the fundamental and essential factors in education

* Executive Secretary of the American Textbook Publishers Institute.

during these many years. By textbooks are meant books used in schools as basic material, as workbooks, printed directives, tests, supplementary and reference materials.

IMPORTANCE OF TEXTBOOKS. The textbook has always been considered the greatest single factor in education to aid the teacher. The nostalgic tribute of Henry Ford to the textbooks of his youth emphasizes the fact that lay people believe the textbook is an essential tool of learning. The safeguards with reference to the contents of textbooks which have been set up by the several states is further evidence of this belief. Indiana a long time ago enacted a law to exclude advertising from textbooks. Other states followed suit with the result that in the United States textbooks are free from advertising matter. Legislators have written into state laws prescriptions with reference to what should be and should not be included in textbooks. City school authorities scrutinize with extreme care the contents of textbooks. Special groups examine textbooks to see that they do not include materials which, from the particular point of view of the special group, are undesirable. That books are basic and essential to a school program is being demonstrated now in various countries in Europe. The restoration of schools in these countries is necessarily in terms of essentials. The children are grouped. Acceptable teachers are secured and the call goes out for books. The importance of the contents of the books is shown by the care that is exercised to see that undesirable material is eliminated and that desirable material is included.

Perhaps the reason why we have heard little about the textbook in the discussion of the educational program of the future is that teachers, educational administrators, and the general public have taken for granted that books are essential tools of teaching and learning and have thought of them as integral parts of whatever educational program evolves.

The textbook is the child's other teacher. Textbooks sustain good teaching and supplement poor teaching. Books, work exercises, study outlines and other printed teaching materials with adequate reference facilities are the most economical, as well as the most efficient, tools of teaching available at the present time.

This does not mean to imply that other tools of teaching are not good and are not to be employed. Great strides are being made in the use of audio and radio aids in teaching. There is no competition

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between the use of books and the use of other materials of instruction. Books must and will be used effectively in any program of so-called audio or visual education. The basic textbook is not only a "reading" method of teaching but is itself a "seeing" method of teaching. It presents the subject in an orderly manner. It provides a framework of reference. It permits proper summations and preserves in a permanent form for the pupils the basic content of the courses. Workbooks and other so-called expendable materials supplement basic texts and are necessary corollaries to the use of visual and audio aids. Books permit a pupil to learn by himself what otherwise must be laboriously and expensively taught orally.

CURRENT INADEQUACIES. The liberal use of books and printed learning material is a sound policy from every educational standpoint. *It is difficult to understand why they are supplied so inadequately in schools.* Textbooks represent at present a very small part of the educational expense. In the country at large about 1.3% of the current school expenditure is for textbooks. *In New York City the expenditures for books for schools have declined to an extremely low figure, much below that for the country as a whole. The recommendation of New York school authorities that the amount expended for textbooks should be increased four times is encouraging and shows a recognition of the seriousness of the situation.*

There is no run-away market in textbooks because competition has kept the cost down. The textbook industry is small, amounting at the present time to about a $45,000,000 business in the secondary and elementary schools, a volume which does not equal the annual business of many manufacturers of small gadgets of one kind and another. Though small, the industry is a highly specialized one and has produced for the United States the best textbooks in the world. It is interesting to note that they are built and sold on a competitive market within a framework of laws that prescribe rigorously the practices of publishers.

Yet during a period when expenditures for schools are increased, expenditures for books for schools are not proportionately increased. However, during a period of reduced expenditures for schools the reduction in expenditures for textbooks is invariably disproportionately large. It is interesting to observe that in 1913 textbooks cost 2.7¢ of the school dollar. The ratio of expenditures for textbooks to the total current expenditures for education has now

dwindled to a sum of less than half that. The reason is that expenditures for textbooks over these years have remained fairly constant while current expenditures for education have increased.

NEEDED TOOLS. *It is a shortsighted policy to spend relatively large sums of money on a school program and then fail to spend an adequate amount to implement that program through proper supplies and tools of working.* Carlyle has said, "All that mankind has done, thought, gained, or been is lying as in magic preservation in the pages of books." The cost of this reservoir of power and inspiration is so relatively insignificant that if children are permitted to come out of their school life without a love of books and discrimination in their tastes and habits of reading, both for information and enjoyment, they are poorly prepared for participation in a democratic society where the future of the country depends upon how wisely its citizens make decisions.

UNJUSTIFIABLE ECONOMY. If textbooks were expensive and constituted a major portion of the school budget one might understand the attempts to have in this area, even though those attempts might not be justified. But when it is realized that an expenditure of slightly in excess of $2.50 per pupil would, over a period of years, furnish an adequate supply of new modern books, it is difficult to understand why school systems permit their supply of books to become inadequate. The practice in many schools of permitting the use of old, obsolete, and, in some instances, dirty books is unfortunate. Pupils assigned such books do not build the proper attitude toward books and lack proper educational tools.

A reduction in the budget for the purchase of adequate books will not materially reduce the cost of education in a given city. An increase in the budget to supply an adequate number of books will not materially increase the cost of education in a given city. However, an adequate supply of books would not only enrich the lives of the boys and girls so supplied but would, in the long run, reduce educational expenditures by reducing retardations in the schools.

CHANGE WILL COME. It was said at the beginning of this article that education will be called upon to meet many challenges in the future. Great changes brought about through scientific research, great changes in industry, improvement in health through the

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advance of medical knowledge, a shrinking of the world through better transportation and communication, the establishment of a world society of nations which will permit an era of peace, the further democratization of life in the United States all will change society. The school, the supplementary agency of society, will change obviously. Likewise textbooks, whose function it is to implement the purposes of education, will change materially.

This brings two implications. The first is that textbooks in schools will be required in greater quantity because they will be built to meet new educational situations. The year 1946 will be a significant year in the copyright dates of textbooks. The second implication is that textbook makers will face new challenges to provide books for the school of the future.

PUBLISHERS ARE READY. Will the schools of the United States provide new textbooks in adequate amounts? The writer's opinion about this will be given later in the article. Are textbook makers able to produce the textbooks demanded by the educational program of the future? In the opinion of this writer the answer is *yes*. Textbook publishers have faced changes before. The present war presented new demands upon the schools and the textbook makers. These brought changes in textbooks. Textbook makers met the demands of war by doing well, and in a remarkably short time, books for the pre-induction courses. They produced millions of books for the U. S. Armed Forces Institute. They provided books for specific officer and technical training. They furnished the schools with books which implemented the war aims. They produced books which assisted in the actual training for war production. They are proud of the splendid contribution that schools made to the war effort. They are proud of their help to the schools in making this contribution.

Textbook publishers believe they can make the necessary adjustments to meet the needs of education in the post-war period. The current slogan for schools now is, *"Schools for ALL the People."* This implies expansion in adult education, kindergarten education, nursery school education, and vocational education. Publishers are making plans now to bring out additional books in these several areas. A publisher recently told of his plans for bringing out books for adult education. They will be written not as high school textbooks or college textbooks are now written, but will be built specifically for the needs of adult education classes. Other publishers are strengthening their editorial departments in the field of vocational education in an endeavor to add to the already strong list of books in that field.

What the textbooks of the future contain will be influenced obviously by the philosophy of school authorities. It is possible that the veterans, who soon will have a dominant voice in the affairs of this country, may call for a reemphasis upon the fundamental tools of learning. The material in certain types of textbooks, therefore, may be more rigorous in the future and emphasize the mastery of fundamentals.

COORDINATION WITH VISUAL EDUCATION. Textbook publishers are alive to the implications of the wider and more effective use of visual and audio aids to teaching and are considering the educational possibilities of the coordination of these media and textbooks. The utilization of textbooks in any radio education program is obvious since study guides, directives, tests, and summations must be included in the plan of teaching by radio. Again, if a city embarks on a program of adult education by the utilization of F-M bands, what is more logical than to use specific textbooks as the bases of such courses?

UNITED NATIONS. Schools will necessarily be required to teach more about more nations than they formerly taught. Soviet Russia, Asiatic peoples, as well as our northern and southern neighbors, must be treated more adequately. Textbook makers, conscious of the need to develop an appreciation of other peoples, have been in the vanguard of progress in this area.

SUPPORT EXPERIMENT. The history of education in the United States reveals the important contribution of textbook publishers to educational progress. They are anxious to continue to experiment, to bring out new materials that will implement a program of education. But in this experimentation they need the support of educators. Occasionally in the past textbook publishers who have attempted to treat on controversial issues have found their books denied adoptions in schools. They are dedicated to the service of education, but they are, however, engaged in a highly competitive business, one which involves great risk. They would like to be

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assured that, as they carry on an experimental program, they do not carry the whole burden alone.

If we have schools for ALL the people, schools to meet the demands and the requirements of the United States of the future, and schools that are attuned to a new world, we shall have to finance them more adequately than we are doing at the present time. Textbook publishers are concerned deeply about the proper financing of schools. They are as much engaged in education as are the school teachers. They realize that what is good for the schools is good for the textbook business. They stand ready, therefore, to support those policies and measures that will contribute to the growth and welfare of the schools.

MORE TEXTBOOKS. They submit again, however, that if the textbook industry is to make its maximum contribution to education in the days that lie ahead, *the schools in most cases must be supplied more adequately with proper books, as well as with other tools of teaching and learning.* Particularly is it important that classroom teachers keep their sense of values in the days that are ahead of us when there will be many demands made upon the school dollar. Buildings will have to be erected and equipped, teachers' salaries adjusted, new materials of instruction provided, increased educational services offered. The child's other teacher is the book, which costs so little and means so much. It would be shortsighted for classroom teachers to fail to insist that books are provided in adequate amounts.

Textbook publishers welcome the changing conditions in education. They believe great opportunities lie ahead for educators. They are proud of the schools and have faith in them, partly because the publishers themselves are a part of the schools. They believe the people of this country want, and will support adequately, an extended and more functional program of education. Therefore, they view the future with optimism and pledge their best efforts in helping school authorities provide the type of education demanded in these critical and interesting times.

Racial Stereotypes in Our English Textbooks

JEROME CARLIN
Brooklyn High School for Specialty Trades

William didn't want to go on the errand. He didn't want to carry home the wash-tubs and the clothes-boiler from the second-hand store, but more than that, he objected strenuously to walking through the streets with that awful-looking nigger, Genesis.

But mothers have no regard for the tender sensibilities of a boy's feelings. Willie Baxter just had no choice about doing that chore; he was condemned by his mother to reveal himself publicly in the company of a disreputable Negro and the latter's equally disreputable dog.

Genesis, on the other hand, was blissfully unaware of the keen embarrassment he was causing his patron's son. The dilapidated state of his overalls caused him no concern; in fact, he completely lacked anxiety about any aspect of his appearance. On his feet were what had once been a pair of patent leather dancing-pumps; in his mouth, the salvaged stub of a cigar; on his head, an ancient derby, its color resembling his own, its weight pressing down upon his "markedly criminal" ears. And as with the master so with the dog, for tagging Genesis's footsteps came such an animal as would have been known anywhere as a colored man's dog.

This was the ordeal of William Baxter, that together with these two he must make part of a horrible pageant advancing through the streets of the town.

DANGERS OF RACIAL STEREOTYPES. In this vein Willie Baxter's embarrassment over his predicament furnishes comedy for three chapters of *Seventeen,* a novel by one of America's best loved authors, Booth Tarkington. Although the preceding paragraphs are not a direct quotation, they summarize both the circumstance and spirit of this episode in the book. The author's treatment of Genesis is one of good-natured jest; indeed, not a single drop of ill-will stains the pages of this or any other of the Tarkington stories, which have entertained millions of readers. Nevertheless, such characterizations as Genesis or the equally comic Gertrude, the Negro serving-maid in *Alice Adams,* are distinctly regrettable. While the omission of these minor characters would not have diminished

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lot in this life, looking to the hereafter for their sustaining hope. That is the old pattern of representation followed by those who were kindly disposed toward the Negro in the days of Harriet Beecher Stowe. It is the pattern of all the humble Uncle Toms in our literature. Articulate Negroes themselves have been telling us recently that they do not welcome for their own group any larger share of the "humble lot" than falls to the fortune of any other people. Negro spokesmen have been declaring their abhorrence of Uncle Tom, whether he exists in fact or fancy. When a musical version of *Uncle Tom's Cabin* came to Bridgeport, Connecticut, not long ago, the New York *Times* reported that it drew protests from Negro community leaders. The pattern of the Negro contentedly lullabying his woes to sleep is hardly one to repeat in a book bearing a copyright date in these 1940's. Nevertheless, on occasion even the alert editor or author thus allows a racial steotype to mar his work. It slips by him, and it may slip by us who teach his book.

It gets by the more readily because custom has blunted our sensitivities. The racial stereotype is such a natural feature of the literary landscape that the mind's eye unsearchingly passes over it just as the glance absently sweeps past the familiar monument in the center of a square.

In the case of the Negro, who of all minority groups is the most frequently delineated in a distorted pattern, there is an additional reason for the dullness of our perceptions. When we laugh at literature's comic Negroes, at the Rochesters and Stepin Fetchits of radio and screen, we are by no means ignoramuses, brutes, or fascists—although some day history will surely find some uncomplimentary term for our benighted state. White men have been victims of a social disorder which has placed the Negro on a lower plane in the scale of human values. The Negro has generally been seen in an inferior position—living in slum dwellings, working at menial occupations, traveling in Jim Crow cars. These obvious facts would scarcely be worth mentioning here, were it not to explain why even the most liberal heart under a white skin occasionally fails to react to the stereotype with pain and outrage. These facts explain why belly laughs, instead of roars of indignation, greet the slap-stick portrayal of the Negro—the stereotype which depicts him as an eye-rolling, shuffle-gaited, "no-account" fellow, who hates to work, loves to gamble, carries a rabbit's foot and suffers from the abject cowardice created by his own superstitions. When such a twisted characterization appears in the pages of a story, we ought to snap the book shut and drop it in the incinerator; when it comes through the radio loudspeaker, we ought to twist the dial and write the sponsor a burning letter; when it appears on stage or screen, we ought to cease our chuckles and sit silent and ashamed, making the box-office shudder. If generally we don't do these things, it may be because we are not aware. The stereotype, the pattern, has been too well established.

This is perhaps as true for teachers as for everyone else. Even those of us who are most sensitive to this problem may have passed over instances of dangerous racial patterns without seeing them for what they are. Nearly everyone has read Edgar Allan Poe's story *The Gold-Bug*. Certainly every English teacher is familiar with it, and many have included Poe's tale of treasure-hunting in reading assignments for their classes. How many of us have recognized that for the immature minds of high school students this story is a dangerous formative influence and an undesirable reading assignment?

HOW THE STEREOTYPE WORKS. *The Gold-Bug* is a favorite of anthology makers, appearing in a number of collections. Because the study of the forces creating prejudice has only recently been begun, the implications of a character like the Negro Jupiter in *The Gold-Bug* have been overlooked.

Poe was no bigot, and his treatment of Jupiter was certainly sympathetic. Had Poe's attitude been really vicious, had he shown hatred or contempt for his Negro character, the effect upon the modern high school student might have been less telling. Our schools in New York City have sought to educate boys and girls in ideals of tolerance and, better yet, of mutual respect and acceptance of others. Today's high school youth might be repelled by an intolerant attitude in an author's work, but Poe obviously loved that foolish old darky, and so all the defenses that might be raised are down.

Our first introduction to Jupiter is in this sentence: *"In these excursions he was usually accompanied by an old Negro, called Jupiter, who had been manumitted before the reverses of the family, but who could be induced neither by threats nor by promises to abandon what he considered his right of attendance upon the footsteps of his young 'Massa Will.'"*

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As he reads this, the student unconsciously establishes certain patterns of thought. *(What do I know about Jupiter? I know that he is a Negro. He is also a servant, just like the Negroes in most stories. The author says that Jupiter has been "manumitted"; according to the dictionary that word means "freed from bondage." So Jupiter must have been a slave once, but the fine old fellow still worships his master, and neither threats nor promises will drive him away. The people in the story find it necessary to humor him by letting him attend and serve his "Massa Will.")*

The student reads further and encounters this description: *"Jupiter, grinning from ear to ear, bustled about to prepare some marshhens for supper."*

(That's familiar. I've seen some characters like that in the movies, usually Negroes, too. Happy-go-lucky in a kind of simple-minded, childish way. In stories people who are dignified and important don't grin from ear to ear.)

Progressing with the narrative of the treasure hunt, the reader learns that Jupiter was to drop the gold-bug from the branch of a tree in order to locate the buried hoard. He reads Master Will's inquiry as to whether Jupiter could climb the tree—and the servant's reply:

"'Yes, Massa, Jup can climb any tree he ebber see in he life.'

"'Then up with you as soon as possible, for it will soon be too dark to see what we are about.'

"'How far mus' go up, Massa?' inquired Jupiter."

(There's a big difference between how Jupiter talks and the way his master speaks. Jupiter's dialect is a little funny. Not that I'd want to laugh at it in any mean way, but some of his remarks tickle my funny-bone just because they're in dialect. I guess my English is pretty good by comparison.)

"'Get up the main trunk first, and then I will tell you which way to go—and here—stop! Take this beetle with you.'

"'De bug, Massa Will!—de goole-bug!' cried the Negro, drawing back in dismay. 'What for mus' tote de bug way up the tree?—d'n if I do!'

"'If you are afraid, Jup, a great big Negro like you, to take hold of a harmless little dead beetle, why you can carry it up by this string—but if you do not take it up with you in some way, I shall be under the necessity of breaking your head with this shovel.'"

(Jupiter is just like a little child, but his master knows how to deal

with him. Master Will talks exactly as if Jupiter were a little boy. First he coaxes—then he threatens to beat Jupiter.)

"'What de matter now, Massa?' said Jup, evidently shamed into compliance. 'Always want to raise fuss wid ole nigger. Was only funnin' anyhow. Me feered de bug!—What I keer for de bug?' Here he took cautiously hold of the extreme end of the string, and, maintaining the insect as far from his person as circumstances would permit, prepared to ascend the tree."

(The Negro is scared all right. It makes you laugh at how frightened he is of a little beetle. Maybe superstitious, too.)

Reading on, the pupil is entertained with how Jupiter climbed the tree, how he hesitated to venture out on the limb unless he could first rid himself of the beetle, and how his master remonstrated with him.

"'You infernal scoundrel!' cried Legrand apparently much relieved, 'what do you mean by telling me such nonsense as that? As sure as you let that beetle fall, I'll break your neck. Look here, Jupiter! Do you hear me?'

"'Yes, Massa, needn't hollo at poor nigger dat style.'"

(Jupiter's right. Even if he is a nigger, his master shouldn't yell at him that way.)

"'Well! now listen!—if you will venture out on the limb as far as you think safe, and not let go of the beetle, I'll make you a present of a silver dollar as soon as you get down.'"

(Boy, I can just see Jupiter's eyes bugging out! I'll bet he'd do almost anything for a dollar.)

Next in the sequence of events Jupiter was instructed to drop the gold-bug through the left eye of a skull which was attached to the end of the limb. However, this procedure failed to locate the position of the buried treasure until Master Will suddenly saw the light.

"'You scoundrel,' said Legrand, hissing out the syllables from between his clenched teeth—'you infernal black villain!—speak, I tell you—answer me this instant, without prevarication!—which—which is your left eye?'

"'Oh, my golly, Massa Will! Ain't dis here my lef' eye for sartain?' roared the terrified Jupiter, placing his hand upon his RIGHT *organ of vision, and holding it there with a desperate pertinacity, as if in immediate dread of his master's attempt at a gouge."*

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(Now wasn't that a stupid trick? The poor colored man didn't know his left eye from his right.)

And so it goes. The effect upon the young reader of such a story as *The Gold-Bug* is to establish in his mind a stereotype of the Negro as an ignorant, foolish, childlike, craven individual. How can the average white youth help but feel patronizingly superior toward Jupiter? If in empathy the reader projects himself into the place of a character in the story, it is the master, Will Legrand, whose role he plays in imagination. With Legrand, the reader heaps imprecations on Jupiter for his stupidity, his ridiculous fears. With Legrand, the reader lovingly condescends to wheedle Jupiter with a silver dollar. With Legrand, the reader looks down upon Jupiter from the lofty pinnacle of white superiority.

If Jupiter could be accepted as an individual rather than a type, Poe's characterization would not be objectionable. Unfortunately, Jupiter is precisely the prototype of his fictional brethren as they are encountered by the high school student everywhere, at the local motion picture theater, on the radio, and between the pages of other books, including other textbooks. Jupiter reinforces other images, and they in turn reinforce the cruel caricature that is Jupiter.

OTHER MINORITY GROUPS. Although the stereotype of the Negro is the one found in our textbooks most often, other minority groups suffer similar treatment. The Irishman, for instance, appears in several derogatory patterns. This kind of portrayal, incidentally, has existed for some time in the history of English literature. Hard feeling between the English and the Irish gave rise to the disparaging delineation of the Irishman. Subsequently this tendency was carried over into American literature and has continued down to the present day.

Some textbook stereotypes of the Irishman are casual—a chance descriptive phrase, a passing remark. In *Johnny Tremain* the hero delivering a message to a man named Molineaux, is described as uncertain whether the idea had penetrated the recipient's "thick skull." Had the author stopped there, she would have done the cause of intercultural harmony a service. But the writer went further and added a label; her complete phrase is "the wild Irishman's thick skull." This is an example of the all-too-ready characterization of the Irishman as dull-witted, thick-headed. The author would have done better to omit the group label.

An older example of the uncomplimentary treatment of the Irishman appears in Nathaniel Hawthorne's *Mr. Higginbotham's Catastrophe.* This characterization partakes less of the nature of the stereotype in the sense that the Irishman is not portrayed here as dense of wit. Nevertheless, his is an unsympathetic role. The plot of the story hinges on a rumor that *"Mr. Higginbotham of Kimballton was murdered in his orchard at eight o'clock last night by an Irishman and a nigger."* Had the rumor turned out to be wholly unfounded, this story would have made a fine lesson in the need for combating rumors about the misdeeds of persons belonging to minority groups. Unfortunately, the climax of the story finds Mr. Higginbotham, several days after the inception of the false report, saved just in the moment before being hanged by an *Irishman.* The leaks of a poorly concealed conspiracy had caused the rumor.

For the more familiar stereotype of the Irishman, Butler's *Pigs Is Pigs* offers a sorry example. The humor of this story, which is very funny indeed, depends upon the obtuse interpretation of the shipping rates by an express company's agent, Mike Flannery. All the complications of the plot arise from Mr. Flannery's attempt to collect expressage on guinea pigs, or "dago" pigs as he sometimes calls them, at the rate charged for bona-fide porkers instead of the fee for pets. The fact that the author is manifestly sympathetic toward his character fails to cancel out the effect of the stereotype.

If the Irishman appears as stupid, members of other groups play more sinister parts. There is a "swarthy Greek" cast in the role of a hold-up man in F. Scott Fitzgerald's *Pusher-in-the-Face.* There is a "Mexican-looking" hoodlum in Jack London's *A Raid on the Oyster Pirates;* this character is the only one in the gang to whom any particular nationality is ascribed. Such characterization is in line with the Columbia group's findings in magazine fiction, revealing a negative presentation of the concept that nice people are Anglo-Saxons.

There are also the Jews of fiction and the drama, drawn as sly money-grubbers and misers. Fagin of Dickens's *Oliver Twist* has vanished from the schoolroom, since the novel is no longer on the approved list; but Shylock is still with us in Shakespeare's play on the pound of flesh. Although some schools have dropped *The Merchant of Venice,* its continuance in four editions on the textbook list seems to indicate that this drama still maintains a degree of popularity.

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Some have it that the sixteenth century bard was the victim of the popular prejudice then existing against Queen Elizabeth's physician, the Portuguese-Jewish Dr. Roderigo Lopez.* However, whether or not Shakespeare can be shown to have been bound thus by the limitations of his time, there is a palpable danger of presenting to young minds a play which portrays the Jew in a stereotype perfectly finished in every detail.

Shylock hates Christians.

"I hate him for he is a Christian."

* * *

"But yet I'll go in hate to feed upon
The prodigal Christian."

Shylock is a usurer.

"ANTONIO. *Or is your gold and silver ewes and rams?*
SHYLOCK. *I cannot tell; I make it breed as fast."*

Shylock is a miser.

"LAUNCELOT. *My master's a very Jew . . . I am famished in his service."*

Shylock loves money more than his child.

"SHYLOCK. *How now, Tubal! what news from Genoa? has thou found my daughter?*
TUBAL. *I often came where I did hear of her, but cannot find her.*
SHYLOCK. *Why, there, there, there, there! a diamond gone, cost me two thousand ducats in Frankfort!"*

Shylock is crafty and treacherous.

(Before the bargain is made)

"SHYLOCK. *If he should break his day, what should I gain*
By the exaction of the forfeiture?
A pound of man's flesh taken from a man
Is not so estimable, profitable neither,
As flesh of muttons, beefs, or goats."

(After the bargain is made)

"SALARINO. *Why, I am sure, if he forfeit, thou wilt not take his flesh: what's that good for?*
SHYLOCK. *To bait fish withal: if it will feed nothing else, it will feed my revenge."*

* Mersand, Joseph. *Traditions in American Literature*, The Modern Chapbooks, New York, 1939.

In short, Shylock conforms to the racial pattern of inferiority. While this stereotype of the Jew casts him as being keen of wit and well endowed with the world's goods, it also shows him as lacking in spiritual wealth. He is an inferior person because his values are twisted, his ideals base.

Some of us have tried to blur the image of the stereotype in *The Merchant of Venice* by stressing Shylock's speech on the identity of Christian and Jew *"Hath not a Jew eyes? Hath not a Jew hands, organs, dimensions, affections, passions? . . . If a Jew wrong a Christian, what is his humility? Revenge. If a Christian wrong a Jew, what should his sufferance be by Christian example? Why, revenge. The villainy you teach me, I will execute, and it shall go hard but I will better the instruction."*

How is Shylock purged by this speech or by the few other bits of dialogue which supposedly justify his attitude through showing him ill-used by those of Antonio's faith? Nothing noble appears in Shylock's defense. Shylock himself does not say: I am motivated by good impulses. He says: *I* am moved by an evil stimulus, revenge —but so would *you* be. *"The villainy you teach me, I will execute. . . ."* What common ground has the Jew Shylock found with Christians? Only the base emotions that both can feel, only the base deeds that both can do.

While some teachers have exerted themselves to use *The Merchant* as a springboard to lessons on intercultural harmony, the play may easily have the opposite effect. The teacher must explain away too much of what the author presents. If there is any underlying attempt in this drama to interpret the pressures on the Jew in that earlier day, it never comes clearly to the surface.

Walter Scott, on the other hand, successfully carried through such a purpose in *Ivanhoe* and made his romance a lesson in the effects of persecution upon the Jew in the Middle Ages. Isaac, the Jew in Scott's work, is again a stereotype, not too different from Shakespeare's Shylock. Isaac too loves money; Isaac too is a usurer. But Scott's character has his moments of nobility, and he is revered by his daughter Rebecca—unlike Jessica, who is ashamed of her father. Furthermore, Scott presented clearly the thesis that the Jew was unjustly persecuted and that unhappy Jews like Isaac responded to oppression with the weapons of their wits, seeking wealth as a bulwark against persecution.

Scott wrote in *Ivanhoe:* ". . . *there was no race existing on the*

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earth, in the air, or the waters, who were the objects of such an unintermitting, general, and relentless persecution as the Jews of this period. Upon the slightest and most unreasonable pretenses, as well as upon accusations the most absurd and groundless, their persons and property were exposed to every turn of popular fury. . . . The obstinacy and avarice of the Jews, being thus in a measure placed in opposition to the fanaticism and tyranny of those under whom they lived, seemed to increase in proportion to the persecution with which they were visited; and the immense wealth they usually acquired in commerce, while it frequently placed them in danger, was at other times used to extend their influence, and to secure to them a certain degree of protection. On these terms they lived, and their character, influenced accordingly, was watchful, suspicious, and timid—yet obstinate, uncomplying, and skillful in evading the danger to which they were exposed."

Scott's purpose, however, is sometimes thwarted by the textbook editors who abridge and adapt *Ivanhoe*. One currently used adaptation omits completely the philosophical dissertations on the causes and effects of persecution of the Jews. What remains in this edition is only the picture of the rich, money-loving Jew, constantly terrified by fears of robbery, violence, and extortion by torture. Thus, even *Ivanhoe*, in abridged versions, must be scrutinized for undesirable racial overtones.

WHAT CAN WE DO? Developing intercultural harmony and understanding manifestly is a delicate and difficult task. No factors should be thrown into the wrong side of the balance to add to the weight already there. Racial stereotypes should be completely eliminated from our textbooks.

When publishers are made completely aware that our schools will not accept books containing stereotypes, they will set their standards accordingly in dealing with manuscripts. This task of education can be accomplished only by our careful scrutiny of texts and avoidance of undesirable purchases.

This does not imply taking the broom and sweeping out all of the books which contain intercultural kinks. Many texts can be put in order merely by a few minutes' work on the part of the publisher's editor armed with a blue pencil. Where unsympathetic characters have been labeled as members of particular groups, the labels can often be deleted. The reference to the villain's Mexican features

can be cut; his name can be changed. When the character has been drawn in such fashion as to prevent removal of the label—his brogue or dialect, for instance, may be an integral part of his characterization—it may be possible to drop his role from the story. Only where revisions of this nature will destroy the worth of a particular work, must the remedy be complete oblivion—but oblivion, then, it should be. There are more than enough available replacements in the ranks of literature.

Improving the Methods of Assigning School Marks

J. W. WRIGHTSTONE*

Assigning marks to students in subject-matter achievement or in personality characteristics is a universal practice. Such marks or ratings may range from a two-fold scale of *satisfactory* and *unsatisfactory* to a rather refined and often pseudo-scientific scale in terms of per cent marks, or ratings. The question, *"to mark or not to mark,"* therefore, can be answered by the fact that marking is an accepted tradition in most schools. Suggestions for the improvement of such marks have been offered from time to time. Most teachers and administrators, however, are unable or unwilling to give the necessary thought and time in order to establish improved marking procedures in their schools. The need for such improvement is evident to all investigators and laymen who will look at the studies of variability in marks assigned by different teachers on the same examination paper.

WHY MARKS VARY. The major causes of confusion in assigning marks are not difficult to ascertain. In general, confusion may be attributed to differences among teachers in terms of (1) *the specific objective, purpose, or characteristic that is being rated;* (2) *the lack of common standard of value;* and (3) *the absence of clear definitions of specific marks.* To these may be added the influence of the teacher's attitudes, physical health and mental health at the time of marking. It has been said (and with some truth) that the state of the teacher's digestion is often more decisive than the quality

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of the product that is being rated. The work of Stalmaker† and others in the improvement of the marking of essay examinations indicates clearly that the reliability of teachers' marks may be improved when certain basic conditions and safeguards are established.

The chief weakness is that the bases upon which marks are assigned by different teachers vary so greatly. Some teachers may disregard the logical organization of the answer that a pupil has formulated or the neatness with which an answer has been written; others may include such factors in determining and assigning a mark. Because of the great variety of meanings attached to marks by different teachers, there is a need to formulate basic standards, meanings, and principles for marking in order to obtain a greater degree of uniformity. This will require that certain decisions be made, that certain specifications be set up, and that certain common practices be followed in a school or a school system.

FALLACY OF THE SINGLE MARK. For many years teachers have compressed into a single mark, or score, the rating of an individual on formal and objective tests as well as on informal and teacher-made tests. Unfortunately, *learning is composed of a number of interrelated factors or objectives,* each of which should receive a separate rating before it is combined into a single, or composite, score. Unless each factor is rated separately, it is inevitable that different teachers will attach different weights to various components, or objectives, in written or oral answers. It is recommended, therefore, that unless questions are phrased to call for performance in one major objective only, separate ratings be made for the important objectives involved in the response to the question.

Suggestions for Improving Marks in Subject-Matter

1. *Determine the Function or Functions That Marks Are to Serve.* The major purpose for the use of test scores and marks may be conveniently classified under two headings: (1) *administrative functions* and (2) *instructional functions.* Under administrative functions marks are used for classification and promotion of pupils, for guidance, for evaluation of curriculum and instruction, and for public relations with parents or school patrons. Under instructional

† Stalmaker, John M. *Essay Examinations Reliably Read, School and Society,* 46:671-672, November, 1937.

functions marks are used for motivation of the pupil's effort, for practice or drill, for diagnosis, and for relative rating in comparison with other pupils. If a test is to be used mainly for practice or drill or for diagnosis, it will undoubtedly be conceived and constructed somewhat differently from a test where the major purpose is classification and promotion. The degree of refinement required in different tests and marks will be affected, also, by their uses. It is important for the teachers and administrators to determine which function their marks are to serve. Having made this decision, they are in a position to apply the next steps.

2. *Determine and Define the Objectives to be Marked in Subject-Matter Areas.* A second order of business in the improvement of marks is to define the objectives that are to be marked in subject-matter areas. In the social studies, for example, the objectives may be (a) *to acquire important information,* (b) *to organize those concepts and ideas clearly,* (c) *to make reasonable interpretations of data,* and (d) *to apply generalizations or principles to specific incidents or situations.*

Having determined the major objectives that are to be stressed, the teachers can define each objective with sufficient specificity and clarity so that all persons have some common understanding of what is meant by each objective. To reach such common agreement discussion and deliberation by all members of the teaching and administrative staffs seem necessary. If a ready-made program is handed down by the administrative officials, the teachers may not understand it or agree with it. The best way to accomplish effective results is to make the formulation and definition of the marking policy a cooperative effort by inviting the teachers to participate in the process of determining and defining the objectives to be measured, and the subsequent procedures that are to be followed. The role of the administrator or supervisor is to provide suggestions and proposals which will guide the school staff in its deliberations.

Specifically, then, a cooperative and democratic supervisor-teacher formulation of the general policies and specific practices to be followed for assigning marks in a school system is required for best results. The policies and specific procedures agreed upon should be printed in such a form that they will be available to every teacher.

3. *Assign Marks, or Ratings, for Each Objective Separately and Combine Into a Composite Mark Later, if Necessary.* After the major objectives have been determined and have been defined in

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the various subject-matter areas, formulate questions so that the student will be called upon to demonstrate his ability and achievement in each of these objectives. The questions should be carefully formulated to call explicitly for expression of student-achievement. In social studies, for example, the student may be asked to explain the reasons for the strike at General Motors in 1937, by stating the essential facts and showing the relationships among (1) *the labor grievances of the employees,* (2) *the practices of the employer,* (3) *related national, social and economic factors,* (4) *the rival labor unions,* and (5) *the method of striking.* Such a question is much better than a general question, such as, *"Explain the reasons for the strike at General Motors in 1937."* The first and more explicit formulation of the question conveys to the student the intent of the question and some indication of the objectives.

The answers should be scored on such objectives as the pupil's organization of facts, his ability to make reasonable inferences, his ability to apply generalizations to specific situations, or any other objectives agreed upon. Each of these objectives should be marked separately and such factors as the pupil's social attitudes, the neatness of his writing, or grammatical structure should be eliminated from the rating to the extent possible. If these other purposes are to be marked, they should be marked at separate ratings of the papers, and the marks should be assigned separately. If it seems necessary or desirable, the various marks may be averaged into a composite score.

4. *Define the Meaning of Marks That Are to Be Used.* In some school systems a two-fold mark procedure, such as *satisfactory* and *unsatisfactory* is used. In other schools, a five-or six-fold marking, such as, *A, B, C, D, E,* and *F* may be used. Regardless of the number of categories into which the marks may ultimately be refined, it is necessary to set up some general principles or rules about what is satisfactory and what is unsatisfactory achievement. Most schools set up a five-fold or six-fold classification of marks. Other schools score papers on some numerical basis such as per cent. The meaning of such categories as are finally agreed upon can be made, first of all, in certain broad or general terms. *A,* for example, is defined as *superior achievement; B* as *above average; C* as *average; D* as *below average* and *E* as *unsatisfactory* or *failure.*

5. *Set up the Steps for Establishing Comparability of Marks in Different Subjects.* To establish comparability, use some form of

statistical treatment of the scores or marks. Various suggestions have been offered by experts and investigators in the field of school marks. Most of these suggestions are based upon the use of the normal curve of probability. Two of the suggestions will illustrate this point. Brooks* suggests 5%, *E's;* 20%, *D's;* 50%, *C's;* 20%, *B's;* and 5%, *A's.* Ruch† suggests 6%, *E's;* 25%, *D's;* 38%, *C's;* 25%, *B's;* and 6%, *A's.* All of these are based upon the assumption that the group of pupils would be somewhat representative of an unselected and normal population. Unfortunately, this assumption rarely holds in a scientific sense in most classrooms or smaller schools. Frequently, however, the assumption does hold on a city-wide basis for the average community with a population above 15,000.

If a scientific approach were to be made, it would require that school officials follow the suggestions of Crawford,** who states that the best bases for assigning marks are (1) that *the performance of a representative and unselected group should set up the most logical standards of achievement;* (2) that *any individual's mark should properly represent his relative achievement within such an unselected group;* and (3) that *equal relative achievement, as thus judged, should receive equal credit in the same or different subjects of study.*

A flexible and practical but less scientific guide, however, is proposed by Ross and would perhaps meet the need of the average school situation. Ross†† suggests that *A's* be assigned to the highest 5 to 10%; *B's,* to the next highest 20 to 30%; *C's,* to the middle 35 to 45%; *D,* to the next lowest 20 to 30%; and *E,* to the lowest 5 to 10%. The particular percentages should be established by the school after study of its pupil population in comparison with an unselected and representative school population.

Specific steps which are suggested to obtain comparability of marks in different subjects are:

a. *Determine the Pupil's Relative Position or Rank*

This determination of the pupil's relative position or rank would

* Brooks, R. C. *Assigning Marks, School and Society,* 1:134, March, 1915.

† Ruch, G. M. *The Objective or New-Type Examination.* Chicago: Scott, Foresman & Co., 1924, Chapter XIV.

** Crawford, A. B. *Rubber Micrometers, School and Society,* 32:233-234, August, 1930.

†† Ross, C. C. *Measurement in Today's Schools.* New York: Prentice Hall, Inc., 1941, pp. 440-441.

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follow the application of the suggestions set up in steps 1 through 4. It is assumed that the relative position, rank or score arrived at would be as valid and reliable as possible.

b. *Translate the Scores into Marks*

Since most marking is on a basis of relative standing, the score is merely a numerical description of the pupil's performance. To be made comparable it must be translated into an appropriate unit or letter rating recognized in the marking system of the school. It has been suggested above that a rather flexible method be used in determining what percentages of pupils in a class should receive *A, B,* etc. This may be termed a crude method of translation, but it will generally serve for the practical school situation. If any teacher or administrator is statistically inclined, he might wish to use more refined techniques which would require determining the mean score and standard deviation of the marks assigned to pupils, and then translating these into standard scores, T-Scores, or other statistically refined comparable ratings.

Suggestions for Improving Marking in Personality Characteristics

No one will deny that personality is related to and affected by achievement in subject matter. Only confusion can result, however, in combining marks of subject matter and personality characteristics. If personality characteristics are to be rated or marked with any degree of validity and reliability, such rating or marking must be done separately from the rating of subject-matter achievement.

In the marking or rating of personality characteristics, teachers experience the same variability in marking as in subject matter for essentially the same reasons. To improve the marking of personality characteristics, follow the same steps as were outlined for subject-matter.

It would be highly desirable for the teachers and administrators in a cooperative manner to determine and to define the personality characteristics that they feel should be rated. Such definitions are illustrated in the *Winnetka Scale for Rating School Behavior and Attitudes.** In this scale five characteristics of personality have been defined for rating. The major characteristics are *cooperation, social consciousness, emotional adjustment, leadership* and *responsibility.* Each of these characteristics is specifically defined in terms of observable pupil behavior or conduct. Thus, a common understanding of each characteristic is reached by the different persons who are rating; by the use of decile scores comparability of standards is introduced into the rating scale.

* Published by Winnetka Educational Press, Winnetka, Illinois.

TO SUM UP. All marks require certain basic conditions: cooperative planning of the marking procedures; determining the functions that the marks are to serve; determining and defining the objectives to be marked; assigning the marks for each objective separately and combining these later, if necessary; defining the meaning or standards for marking symbols; and establishing comparability of marks assigned in different subjects or for personality characteristics. Confusion in marking can be reduced.

The Need For a Testing Service in a Vocational High School

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Democracy in education demands that provision be made in our educational program for the differences which exist among individuals. A good testing program represents a scientific attempt to measure the differences among our pupils to the end that instruction and guidance may be adapted to individual needs. The equality which democracy demands of education is that of opportunity. The bright, the average, the dull—all must be given equal opportunity to apply their talents to tasks which are consonant with their ability. Testing is important because it discovers and makes tangible the needs of *persons.* Only when education meets these needs does it fulfill the democratic ideal.

One great need of guidance, therefore, is that of obtaining reliable information about our pupils. The chemist may weigh his sample to the nearest hundred thousandth of a gram. Human nature, however, is so complex, and our methods of analysis and measurements are so coarse, relatively, that we are seldom certain that the information we have is complete or accurate.

OTHER DATA. Of course it is possible for an adviser to make a rough appraisal of an entering pupil's ability from data other than

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scores on standardized tests. The thoughtful adviser will make this judgment from the pupil's rate of progress in elementary or junior high school, and to a lesser extent, from his class marks. Appearance and manner are notoriously deceptive. When advisers receive test results for pupils in their section, they frequently find that they have been inclined to overestimate the ability of the good-looking pupils from better homes, and to underestimate the capacity of those who are handicapped by speech impediments, or who are awkward or poorly dressed.

The cumulative record card, the vocational school's primary guidance instrument, contains many different types of data. Some are objective and reliable, others subject to much error. For example, Item 9, containing objective measurements of the child's height, weight, visual acuity, etc., is more likely to be reliable than the teachers' estimates of pupil personality traits found in Item 4. Among the various types of data available for guidance purposes, standardized test results enjoy an unusual degree of reliability. A raw score on the Henmon-Nelson intelligence test, for example, has a probable error of only three points. Of course, we cannot determine a child's intellectual ability as readily and accurately as we can measure his height. In fact, we are not even certain at all times as to what we are measuring. For guidance purposes, however, the value of our tests is proved by the fact that the data obtained in two or three hours have been shown to predict future educational success with greater accuracy than do school marks for the previous eight years.

The remainder of this paper will describe how test results can help (a) the adviser who is responsible for the over-all guidance of the pupil and for making available to the pupil all the services of the school, and (b) the classroom teacher whose major responsibility is the teaching of subject matter.

Testing in Guidance

THE "PROBLEM CHILD." Teachers, being primarily concerned with the learning process, are inclined to overestimate the importance of intellectual traits in the development of personality problems. Of course, an adviser is justified in assuming that a pupil who is doing excellent work is an intelligent individual. Our psychological tests, however, are continually disclosing cases in which the reverse is not true. Some of our most intelligent pupils fail in their school work,

or present behavior problems to their teachers. In such cases, our test results rule out the factor of limited intellectual ability and direct the adviser's attention to the more important emotional factors which underlie behavior and personality problems.

The child who is over aggressive, or lies constantly, or destroys property wantonly, cannot be dismissed on the grounds that "he is too dull to know any better." A visit to an institution for the feebleminded teaches us that persons suffering from a far greater degree of mental defect than the dullest of our pupils can be taught to live social lives.

AN EXAMPLE. A pupil is doing poor work and hindering the work of others in an English class. The child has an I.Q. of 114, which indicates that the primary cause of the problem behavior is not lack of intellect, and that the solution should be sought elsewhere. The pupil's adviser learns that the child's father is an inmate of an institution for the psychotic; his mother is working nights to support the family, and is seldom at home; a brother is in jail for the illegal possession of firearms. The boy lives in a home which is unspeakably squalid.

To be sure, cases as unfortunate as this are not frequent. Just the same we must remember that before the war-time increase in employment a large number of our pupils came to us from families which were on the rolls of the public and private relief agencies. Our pupils are by no means oblivious to emotional tension, money worries, and serious illness at home. If the adviser is alert and responsive, the school may become a refuge to the child who is unhappy at home. In fact, this is often the case. In spite of the adviser's best efforts, however, the unhappy child is less able to meet and overcome the obstacles of school life than one who is happy and well adjusted at home.

A pupil who presents severe personality or behavior problems which may require psychiatric treatment is more likely to be detected by an examiner administering an individual test, than by his adviser. The former can study the pupil's unprepared reactions to an unfamiliar situation; the latter is met chiefly by the stereotyped behavior patterns with which the disturbed pupil has armed himself to meet the daily routine.

PREDICTING PROBABLE SUCCESS. The vocations for which

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we are preparing our pupils in our vocational schools differ markedly in respect to the average intelligence of those who work efficiently and happily in them. Shop teachers in general, and chairmen of the various departments in particular, should have a good idea of the level of intelligence which has been found to characterize the people who make progress in a given occupation. A pupil entering upon a course should be prompted by his adviser to ask himself whether his general mental abilities resemble those of persons successful in the particular field.

The pupil who chooses an occupation in which the majority of workers have a higher degree of intelligence than he possesses places himself under an enormous handicap, and is not likely to succeed. The effect of repeated failure upon the personality is too well known to require comment. On the other hand, the intellectually superior pupil who enters an occupation which fails to make use of his intelligence is likely to find the work monotonous and unattractive. Certainly, the adviser will take the I.Q. into account when considering a pupil's fitness for any specific occupation. At the same time, the thoughtful adviser will keep in mind the fact that the I.Q. is only one of the many important items to be considered.

ESTIMATING SUCCESS IN COLLEGE. A considerable number of vocational school pupils go on to college after graduation. This is made possible by the fact that several vocational schools carry Regents-approved academic courses in addition to the regular vocational program. For these pupils the I.Q. can be of great value to the adviser by enabling him to discover in a relatively short time the probable upper limit of scholastic attainment for a given pupil. Pupils with I.Q.'s from 85 to 105 constitute a large percentage of the vocational school enrollment. If not retarded by illness or various other causes, these pupils should be able to graduate. Even when exceptionally industrious, however, these pupils are not good college material, and probably should not be encouraged to seek education beyond the high school.

An example. A youngster who is doing well in the dental mechanics course informs the Guidance Department of his intention to become a dentist. A study of this pupil's test results indicates that he cannot reasonably be expected to complete the required work of a liberal arts college. The advanced professional work of the dental school is completely out of the question. Advisers should remember

that the pupil's goal is not always realistic. Apparently, these goals are as frequently influenced by home attitudes as by the child's aptitudes. It is the adviser's responsibility to avoid serious maladjustment by helping children to relinquish goals which are impossible of attainment and to redirect them to channels where they can hope to achieve success.

An adviser who is called upon to recommend a pupil to a college, marine academy, or other higher institution of learning should remember that our intelligence test scores are a better forecaster of college achievement than are our high school marks. Hundreds of studies have been made of the relationship between various general intelligence tests and college achievement. While such correlations cluster around .45 and are not especially high, they contrast very favorably with the correlations between high school marks and college marks which range around .25. Of course, the adviser will remember that some pupils relatively low in intelligence but superior in perseverance will be able to go much farther than could be predicted on the basis of I. Q. alone.

TRAINING FOR HOMEROOM LEADERSHIP. As teachers, we tend to become overinterested in our subject matter, and sometimes lose sight of our most important responsibility; namely, the wholesome development of growing children. The daily homeroom is the best preventive of this occupational ailment, since it brings into focus the constantly developing personalities of individual pupils. The chief goal of the pupil-adviser relationship is, of course, the properly directed growth of children, but an important by-product is the professional growth of teachers.

The great struggle to defend the democratic way of life throughout the world emphasizes the responsibility of the school for the development of intelligent leadership. The homeroom is the most appropriate social situation within the school for the development of leadership traits. Although there may be wide disagreement as to the traits necessary for constructive leadership in a democracy, all agree that general intelligence is an indispensable attribute. The Testing Service can designate those of our pupils whose potentialities, if awakened, will allow them to make the greatest contributions to the social good.

HELPING PARENTS. Generally, parents are likely to be blind

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to the limitations of their children. Advisers, of course, will not disclose test results to parents indiscriminately, because such data can be very harmful in the hands of those who are not trained to interpret them. However, parents are likely to assume more reasonable attitudes toward the educational and vocational goals, and the school achievement of their children when they realize how these reflect the innate capacities of their children. Expecting too much of children is a common failing of parents.

Just as pupils may be made unhappy by the excessive pushing of their parents, so the superior child whose ability is not recognized at home may become disheartened. Many of our pupils have parents who were born in the old world, and received little schooling before coming to this country. Occasionally, these parents are inclined to underestimate the value of education beyond the sixteenth year. The economic status of our pupils is generally low; many parents are making real sacrifices in order to keep their children in school. This problem is accentuated by the fact that most of our pupils are overage for their grade. They will graduate at an age at which their parents were assuming full responsibility. In almost all cases, however, parents are willing to make additional sacrifices if they can be convinced that the child has superior ability and is likely to derive great benefit from additional schooling. Successful guidance of pupils often depends upon effective guidance with their parents.

How Testing Aids Instruction

HELPING TO INDIVIDUALIZE INSTRUCTION. In fact, the earliest intelligence scale arose out of the need for an instrument which would predict a pupil's probable rate of school progress, and to segregate those who could not reasonably be expected to benefit from the usual group instruction. Today we all recognize that the adjustment of school tasks to abilities has resulted in greater progress for all pupils, whether bright or dull. Any accurate measure by which we can compare the achievement of one pupil with that of others and with averages of groups and even with his own previous achievement will help in diagnosing his points of strength and weakness.

The vocational school's liberal promotion policy and the wide range of intellectual ability among our pupils are two factors which combine to produce great variations in ability within a single class. At the very beginning of the term, our test results can give the teacher a valuable clue to the varying abilities within his class, enabling him

to individualize his instruction so that each pupil may at once apply himself to a task appropriate to his ability and needs.

It is apparent that without knowledge of the pupil's intelligence level, the teacher can only hazard a guess as to whether the child's performance reflects his highest potential achievement. Not only must the subject matter of instruction be individualized, but the devices used for motivation, the type of drill used, etc., must depend upon the intellectual status of the pupil. "Intelligence" is, in fact, only another term for "learning ability."

The textbooks in the methods of teaching science, for example, continually stress the desirability of presenting that subject inductively. This view is supported by sound logic and scientific method. In actual practice, however, we find that pupils whose I.Q.'s hover around 90, and who comprise a significant portion of the vocational school population, are poorly skilled in inductive reasoning. It is doubtful whether these pupils can be taught to do highly abstract thinking. Our test results are valuable because they discourage too great a preoccupation with the subject matter of the curriculum, and direct the teacher's attention to the needs of persons.

GRADING. Perhaps the most practical basis for grading and promotion is a pupil's performance on teacher-made tests of accomplishment. Since a large number of vocational school pupils are overage for their grade, extra promotions, when feasible, would seem to be desirable. Test data can prove to be very helpful to the teacher who is considering the advisability of accelerating a superior pupil. Of course, the pupil's age, character, and work traits are important factors to be considered.

Many teachers feel that two factors, at least, should be considered when marks are to be assigned, viz., the pupil's potential ability and his actual accomplishment. A pupil of inferior ability may receive a passing grade if he does the type of work for which a pupil of superior potential ability might conceivably be failed. A large number of factors are involved in decisions of this kind, but the pupil's intelligence quotient is almost always relevant.

READING PROBLEMS. Consistently, one of our most vexing problems has been the generally poor reading ability of our pupils. Certainly, reading difficulties tend to lower significantly achievement in almost any subject we may be teaching. The daily log of our testing

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activities enables us to ascertain at a glance those of our pupils whose reading scores are low for their mental ages. If a pupil is already reading up to the level of his mental age it is not likely that much can be done for him. However, those pupils whose accomplishment in reading is poor in respect to general mental ability are referred, as a matter of routine, for remedial reading. Real and lasting benefits can be derived from diagnostic procedures of this sort only when they are followed by an earnest program of remedial instruction. The remedial reading program recently begun in the vocational school division is an important step forward.

RESEARCH AND THE TEACHER. One of the most important stimuli to our professional growth as teachers is the participation in research activities and the application of research findings to current educational problems. Every teacher who evaluates his own teaching procedures is, in fact, a research worker. The teacher who is constantly thinking up new ways of presenting a subject may wish to find out whether the new procedure is an improvement over the old. Not all changes are progress. Ordinarily, the teacher will try the old method of instruction with one group, and the new method of instruction with another group, and then test both groups to see which excels. The conclusion drawn from studies of this type have little validity because of the failure to control the various factors in a scientific manner.

There are two important requisites for scientific experimentation. The first is the control of all factors with which the experiment is concerned. The second is the precise measurement of the effects of the experimental procedure. By the use of our tests we are able to obtain fairly exact knowledge of the general intelligence, reading ability, and skill in arithmetical operations, of our experimental and control groups. Our test results may be used to arrange two groups which are equivalent in respect to general intelligence and the two fundamental learning skills. Our standardized tests also make it possible to measure accurately the outcomes of the old and new type instruction, and to determine which is the more successful.

LIMITATIONS. In conclusion, it should be remembered that standardized test results provide only certain types of information about pupils. For wise guidance and effective instruction, test results should be used in conjunction with other relevant and significant

information from all sources. While test results supply only a part of the informational background necessary to meet pupil needs, they are particularly important because the part of the total picture which they supply is usually accurate and reliable, and aids in sketching in the rest of the picture.

Revitalize the Social Studies and the Humanities

PEARL MAYEFSKY, Brooklyn Technical High School

This is not intended as a further discussion of "human relations." I merely wish to point out that while the teachers of the humanities have been talking about indoctrinating for a variety of social attitudes, the teachers of the natural sciences have walked in and taken over the New York high schools.

There are three interrelated trends in the high schools today:

1. The stampede toward technical and vocational education
2. The loss of prestige of the academic school
3. The overloading to the point of distortion of the English syllabus

REASONS FOR THE TREND. It is my belief that all three of these trends are due, first, to the type of piecemeal thinking that characterized the discussion of human relations, and, second to the fact that *nowhere* in the high schools are the social studies being taught with the vigor, completeness and efficiency with which the natural sciences are now taught. I mean *nowhere*—not even in the academic schools.

Of course there are reasons for this disproportion:

1. The technological world has captured the imagination of the modern school child.
2. Parents, children, and even educators are convinced that it is practical.
3. More money is available for such education.

I have sympathy with those who wish to yield to this demand; however, I object strongly to the concept that such education is more practical than any other.

LACK OF BALANCE. Even if—and note the if—all courses in the curriculum labeled vocational or technical or scientific were

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directly useful vocationally—even then the amount of time spent on them would still be disproportionate. Vocational adjustment is *only one phase* of the whole adjustment to adult life. This is a truism; it is an old chestnut; it has been said before; and so on. But I should like to see this idea inscribed indelibly and prominently in the office of every principal who directs the policies of every technical and vocational school in the city. More than that: I would like every parent and every child to understand and believe it.

However, there is room for considerable doubt that technical and vocational schools are as strictly concerned with practical training as parents and children seem to think, or as administrators of these schools frequently maintain. A close inspection of the curriculum of some of the technical high schools leads me to the conclusion that many courses in the curriculum are really *cultural* courses. Their total effect is to describe the society in which we live—except that that society is reduced to an industrial and technological skeleton from which human life has been abstracted.

ACADEMIC SCHOOLS AT FAULT. However, the academic school is not helping the cause of the humanities either. Instead of appropriating new learning for the high schools and strengthening the social studies curriculum, *the academic high school has clung to its eighteenth-century "culture" course,* adding bits of embroidery from the curricula of vocational schools.

NATURAL SCIENCES ALERT. Contrast this negligence with the manner in which every aspect of the natural sciences, as it swims into the field of human knowledge, is seized upon for the high school: applied science is well represented in such new fields as electronics, aeronautics, and radionics, which are now being adapted for the high schools. But in the social sciences even the respectably established science of sociology—which would be extremely useful in the teaching of good human relations, by the way—has never been introduced even in the better academic schools. The fact is that *not a single academic high school has had the courage or the enterprise to do for the social sciences what the technical school has been doing for the natural sciences: point the way to complete coverage and effective use of these bodies of knowledge.*

ENGLISH A CATCH-ALL. This does not mean that the school

administrators in New York are not aware of the tremendously pressing need for better education for the world of today. It only means that they think *they have* handled the problem. In fact they send out multitudes of directives practically ordering that the problem be handled *forthwith* by the English teacher.

There is no subject, from the problem of economic man to good manners, that does not find its way into the English syllabus. The subjects covered are truly varied. Nothing human is alien to the English syllabus. The English teacher has been given all knowledge for his province. Not till the sun excludes a subject will the English teacher exclude it. Literature is a springboard, and jackknives and half-gainers fill the air. New directives pour in every day, and cheerfully and uncomplainingly the English teacher goes along from day to day sometimes carrying the butter under his cap, sometimes leading the loaf of bread home by a string, now bolstering the social sciences, now the arts, always satisfying felt needs for which no provision has been made—because the high school curricula are so inadequate.

REMEMBER THE HUMANITIES. Teaching can hardly be called a dramatic occupation, but the world situation is sufficiently challenging to put all educators on their mettle. It is *not* practical to spend large sums of money for the expansion of vocational and technical schools, if such expenditures are not matched or even exceeded by equal expansion in the humanities.

It is not practical to turn out students who have no appreciation of the importance of group living until they are caught up in the irresistible currents of wars, depressions, or strikes. It is not practical at all to turn out students who believe emotionally that just around the corner is a scientific gadget that will answer the problem of good human relationships. It is dangerous to turn out young people who regard politics as a game somebody else plays. The truly impractical people are those who have agreed unthinkingly to the distortion of the high school curriculum.

The recent success of America in the desperate competition of technological warfare has added to the glamour of pure science and of technology. No doubt Dr. Bush's eloquent plea will be heeded. But I note that no great spokesman has arisen to insist that we search with equal fervor for promising young people for the social sciences. Yet who can doubt that the need is equally great?

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SUGGESTED PROGRAM. Is there in New York an educator who will take the lead in restoring the social studies to their proper status? To show that it is practicable, I offer the following course of study:

I. *Literature*
1. Improvement of reading up to the required adult level in speed, interpretation, prediction, fact-finding: ½ year
2. Study of the Greek, Roman, and Biblical classics in translation: 1 year
3. Study of standard American and British literature: ½ year each
4. Study of current literature: 1 year
5. Study of periodicals: ½ year

II. *Speech*

One year in fifth and seventh terms in addition to the English curriculum

III. *History, including geography*
1. Ancient history: ½ year
2. Recent world history (Asia, Europe, South America): 1½ years
3. American history: 1 year
4. Current history: ½ year

IV. *Social Studies*
1. Anthropology: ½ year
2. General sociology: ½ year
3. Mental hygiene (psychology): ½ year
4. Human relations (advanced sociology): ½ year
5. Government: ½ year
6. Industrial economics: ½ year
7. Commercial economics: ½ year

V. *Philosophy*

One-half year course in logical reasoning in the fifth term

VI. *Languages*
1. History of all languages, including English: ½ year
2. Romance languages, emphasizing Spanish, noting others: 2 years
3. Germanic languages: 1 year
4. Slavic languages: ½ year

VII. *Science including mathematics*
1. Two years of general mathematics, unlabeled to include algebraic technics, and geometries
2. Zoology: ½ year
3. Bio-chemistry: 1½ years
4. Physics: 1 year

VIII. *Arts*

Three years divided between art and music in a dovetailed program

IX. *Physical Education*

Three years including hygiene, in a dovetailed program

The total is 28 "years"—that is seven periods a day for four years. And it is not a program which bright young things would be able to finish in three and a half: that absurdity would vanish if the academic high school took itself seriously.

As I said, this is not about human relations. It is about the inadequacy of the high schools. The problem of teaching for democracy becomes simple if we cease to think about each aspect and settle down to teaching a well-rounded program in the social studies and the humanities.

Organization and Administration of Speech in the Vocational Division*

ESTELLE MOSKOWITZ
Metropolitan Vocational High School

There was once a time when academic people accepted appointment in the vocational division with fear and trepidation. The gruesome stories which used to go the rounds made the division seem like an educational Siberia. Today, however, the vocational high school is attracting a superior type of pupil because this, more than any other, is a vocational age. Once the teacher "learns" these youngsters, even those of low I. Q., he gets a whole-hearted response and loyalty from them and to them which one would not have dreamed possible. This should give hope and encouragement to the teachers of speech newly appointed to the vocational division. However, the teacher of speech may become *enthusiastic* about the job ahead, despite initial difficulties of adjustment, because at this time (September, 1945) the vocational division is launching an organized speech program. What is done, what is accomplished, will determine whether or not speech work will continue and expand. This is an

* Based on a speech delivered before prospective teachers of speech in the vocational division, June 15, 1945, at the Board of Education, under the auspices of the Standing Committee in Speech.

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opportunity which is vast and challenging and for which one will need zest and enthusiasm.

SPEECH IN VOCATIONAL SCHOOL. Teaching in the vocational school differs from that in the academic division in motivation, teaching techniques and syllabus content. For purposes of motivation, the social asset of good speech is not stressed as much as are the utilitarian, immediate benefits realized in job-getting and job-advancement. Good speech is brought down to actual dollar-and-cents values. It is made clear that the consequences of speech deviations may be an inferior job or difficulty in adjusting to the work environment where ridicule because of speech peculiarity may create a mental hazard at work. The need of speech free from marked deviations as a necessity in the process of taking and giving orders, a procedure which is usually oral, is emphasized. In the vocational high school, the value of speech in earning a living is stressed, and the aim is to help rid the youngsters of speech defects which, after all, may prove as much of an occupational handicap as a withered arm or any other physical disability. Motivation is never couched in the language of the abstract nor in terms of nebulous future advantages. Compared with the academic schools, the approach must be far more utilitarian and vividly dramatic.

ROUTINIZE TECHNIQUE. The teaching techniques differ in the two divisions. In the vocational division, more than in the academic, it is essential to follow a definite, and where possible, a uniform program. For example, it is a good plan to place the aim of the lesson on the blackboard each day so that there can be no vagueness as to what is to be accomplished within the period. It is a good plan so to routinize the work that a feeling of security through regularity and definiteness of the task within the pupils' grasp may be established. The pupils seem to adjust better to the class situation when they know the exact procedure of each lesson.

CORRELATION. Syllabus content, as previously indicated, is as practical as possible. As much as feasible, one should try to correlate the speech program with the shop work. An actual example of such correlation follows: One "speech day," one of the boys who was a photography major told the class of the money he had made over the week-end taking pictures of wedding parties. He had

persuaded the minister of the church in his neighborhood to recommend clients to him. The next week, another boy told the class that Joe had inspired him the week before, that he had gone to all the halls in his neighborhood, that he had promised the managers 10% of all business that was swung his way, that he had made $9.00 on the first Sunday and had been given dinner at a confirmation party as well. The next week, two boys announced that they had gone into business together. They had the printing shop in the school make cards for them, and asked permission to announce their venture on the class bulletin board. Many similar illustrations could be cited.

For those faced with the problem of setting up speech classes in a school which has never had them before, the following outline of a prospectus for the organization and administration of speech in a vocational high school follows:

Speech in the Vocational High School

I. Purpose:
   A. To help the youngsters make a more adequate social adjustment
   B. To make speech work outstanding in the school and throughout the division

II. Organization of classes on the basis of speech science and speech arts
   A. Speech science (clinic classes)
      1. Arrangement of testing schedule
         a. Use a standard preliminary speech testing form
         b. Accept to the limit of capacity youngsters who show the greatest need
      2. Equipment and supplies
         a. One large mirror; individual small mirrors
         b. Tongue depressors
         c. Speech recording device
         d. Filing cabinet to keep the following records:
            (1) Standard filing card
            (2) Speech testing materials
            (3) Folders of case histories
   B. Speech arts
      1. Possible classes
         a. Radio technique
         b. Dramatics
         c. Public speaking

Note: Where organization of the school permits, establish a specific speech term so that all youngsters may be given the opportunity of speech training.

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2. Organization
   a. Circularize all English teachers for names of gifted students
   b. Utilize auditorium announcement to stimulate student interest
   c. Present an assembly "trailer" to induce students to apply for the special speech class

III. Pedagogy
   A. Need for careful motivation and lesson preparation
   B. Need for presenting material on concrete rather than on abstract basis
   C. Need for use of multiple sense appeal
   D. Need for use of attention-getting-and-holding devices, such as progress charts, rewards, etc.

IV. Education of the public for speech
   A. Address parent-teacher associations
   B. Address faculty meetings
   C. Write articles for publication

A NEW FIELD. In closing, the writer wishes to state that as a veteran of both the academic and the vocational divisions, she feels that teachers of speech who find themselves assigned to the vocational division have cause for rejoicing, for here are new paths to hew; here one may truly pioneer.

High Points

THE ANTIQUARIAN'S CORNER

The experiences of Charlotte Brontë as a pupil and teacher, memories happy and unhappy, appear throughout her four novels. Readers of *Jane Eyre* or those who saw the movie will remember the grim charity school, Lowood, where the children were starved and treated so harshly. Its original was the Clergy Daughters' School at Cowan Bridge attended by the daughters of impoverished clergymen. Charlotte entered this school at the age of eight with her two older sisters, Maria and Elizabeth, and her younger sister, Emily. She left after a year and did not go to a school again until she was sixteen.

She spent a year then in a school at Roe Head kept by Miss Margaret Wooler. Life was more pleasant here and Charlotte made the acquaintance of two girls who were to be her life-long friends. They appear as Caroline Helstone and Rose Yorke in the pages of

Shirley. In 1835, at the age of nineteen, Charlotte became a governess at the Roe Head School. Later she and her younger sisters, Emily and Anne, formed a plan to run a school of their own. In order to gain proficiency in foreign languages, Charlotte and Emily went to Brussels in 1842 where they studied for a few months at the Pensionnat Héger. Charlotte returned in 1843 to work as a governess in the Pensionnat.

Upon her return after a year, the three sisters tried to secure pupils at Haworth, their home town, but: *"Everyone wishes us well, but there are no pupils to be had."* Thereupon, they collected the manuscripts of some poems they had written, sent them to a publisher under the pseudonym, *Currer, Ellis, and Acton Bell;* and the rest is literary history.

Charlotte's educational experiences in Brussels are the basis of two novels, *The Professor* and *Villette.* The former was actually her first novel but it did not receive publication until after her fame was established by *Jane Eyre.* It is the story of a young man, William Crimsworth, who leaves England to seek employment in Belgium. He is offered a position as teacher of English and Latin in a boys' school run by a M. Pelet. Later he teaches in a school for girls.

Some selections from *The Professor* follow:

* * *

A CONTINENTAL CUSTOM

The word "professor" struck me. "I am not a professor," said I.

"Oh," returned Mr. Brown, "professor here in Belgium means a teacher—that is all."

Teachers who traveled in Europe before the war will remember that the custom still holds.

* * *

SALARIES AND DUAL JOBS

The subject of salary next came on. It was fixed at one thousand francs per annum, besides board and lodging. "And in addition," suggested M. Pelet, "as there will be some hours in each day during which your services will not be required in my establishment, you may, in time, obtain employment in other seminaries, and thus turn your vacant moments to profitable account."

Historical Note: The franc of those days (about 1845) had a value of approximately twenty cents but as the economists always tell us, its purchasing power was higher.

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NO TEACHER SHORTAGE

I found afterwards that the terms on which M. Pelet had engaged me were really very liberal for Brussels, instruction being extremely cheap there on account of the number of teachers.

* * *

THE AGE-OLD STRUGGLE

A pupil whose sensations are duller than those of his instructor, while his nerves are tougher and his bodily strength perhaps greater, has an immense advantage over that instructor, and he will generally use it relentlessly, because the very young, very healthy, very thoughtless know neither how to sympathize nor how to spare.

* * *

PUPILS WILL BE PUPILS

One day I gave as a DEVOIR, the trite little anecdote of Alfred tending cakes in the herdsman's hut, to be related with amplifications. A singular affair most of the pupils made of it. Brevity was what they had chiefly studied. The majority of the narratives were perfectly unintelligible . . . Eulalie, indeed, had hit upon a clever expedient for at once ensuring accuracy and saving trouble. She had obtained access somehow to an abridged history of England, and had copied the anecdote out fair. I wrote on the margin of her production, "Stupid and deceitful," and then tore it down the middle.

* * *

Mr. Crimsworth's first day of teaching must have been nerve-wracking. He was given a class in reading without time to prepare himself. The text was *"The Vicar of Wakefield, much used in foreign schools, because it is supposed to contain prime samples of conversational English."* Unwilling to try his French on the pupils, Crimsworth had the pupils read the English text aloud. After a dozen boys had read, he stopped the lessons, took them down *"a peg in their self-conceit,"* told them they were terrible, and then read the text himself. He went on for a half-hour and then dismissed the class with an admonition that they should do better the next day.

His handling of the situation aroused the respect and admiration of M. Pelet, the principal who had evidently observed the first day of teaching. He exclaimed, *"C'est bien! C'est très bien! Je vois que monsieur a de l'adresse; çela me plaît, car, dans l'introduction, l'adresse fait tout autant que le savoir."*

At the risk of offending purists, I'll translate in the vernacular and uses a currently popular non-antiquarian word which I don't like myself but which is necessary for the *jeu de mots.*

"Excellent, first-rate! I see that you have *know-how.* I'm happy about that because in the teaching business, *know-how* will get you as far as knowledge."

MORRIS ROSENBLUM — Samuel J. Tilden High School

ETHICS FOR THE ATOMIC AGE

CIVILIZATION AT THE DOORSTEP OF DOOM. The advent of atomic energy is forcing the issue of war and peace.[1] Wars are becoming ever more devastating and interwar periods of so-called peace are becoming shorter. We are told that mankind has been brought to the "doorstep of doom."[2] This warning comes not from wild-eyed mystics, but from hard-headed physicists who have themselves unloosed the forces which threaten the wholesale cremation of entire cities and the utter destruction of our civilization.[3] Dr. Harold C. Urey, after tracing the history of the military uses of the machine gun, the submarine, and the airplane, points out:[4]

"In regard to the future development of this weapon (the atomic bomb) we can confidently expect that it will follow the course of other military weapons—"

These circumstances call for nothing less than a revolution in our educational thinking even as they call for a revolution in our political and military thinking. The problem is, in a broad sense, an educational one, since what we have to fear is not so much the natural forces discovered as our fellow men who are in a position to unleash them. *More* science[5] alone will not suffice. We must develop the *ethical* man. An all-out attack must be made on this fundamental problem.

NEED FOR THE "TEACHING" OF ETHICS. There is need for developing in all children—everywhere in the world—a common understanding of the evolution of human individual and social conduct and an appreciation of the ethical ideals which men of great spiritual insight have preached to their fellow men throughout the ages. We in the public schools, for reasons well known, seem content to relegate this responsibility to the Church. But we must in all candor recognize that the multiplicity of traditional religions constitutes a divisive rather than a unifying influence. In spite of their profession of common ideals, traditional religions, in their practices

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and in their teachings, tend to emphasize their own respective differences.

TIME IS SHORT. This is admittedly no small order. We are called upon to deal not merely with the human intellect but with the human soul. We are expected to achieve quickly—within a generation—something which the churches have failed to achieve in millennia. Nevertheless, we cannot afford to shirk this responsibility. It is later than we think.

1. Algernon D. Black—Ethical Culture Society sermon, Nov. 11, 1945.
2. Raymond B. Fosdick—Radio address—CBS, November 5, 1945.
3. Statement, Ass'n of Los Alamos Scientists, N. Y. Times, Oct. 14, 1945.
4. Harold C. Urey—*Science*, 102:436, 1945.
5. *Science, the Endless Frontier*—Bush Committee Report, 1945.

ZACHARIAH SUBARSKY Bronx High School of Science

ORIENTATION IN THE NINTH YEAR

The following is a brief report of the committee which has been studying some of the classroom problems connected with the orientation of our ninth year students.

A DIFFICULT ADJUSTMENT. It seems obvious that the change from the elementary school to the senior high school, involving, as it must, a radical change in the child's way of living, creates problems which call for understanding and assistance from the teachers in the senior high school. When she attended elementary school, her life was a more-or-less set routine—in school from 9 to 12, home for lunch and back in school from 1 to 3, with the rest of the day free for all other activities. Now she has adjustments to make in order to reorganize her daily living. Her hours for rising, for eating, as well as for study, have all to be rearranged.

One girl was heard to ask the following question: "How can I get to bed before 11 o'clock when I arrive home at 5:30, help with dinner and the dinner dishes and then prepare four or five assignments of from 40 to 45 minutes each (and sometimes more than 45)?" And she added, "In the morning, before school, I have to clean up the house and go to the store."

In Section 184, last term, one child had to market for an aunt

and grandmother as well as for her own family, before school. This was discovered in talking with her about her lateness—and probably all of us have known children who have had similar experiences.

Problems face our ninth year students, very difficult problems requiring, perhaps, more time than we have heretofore given to them. Add to the above the unfamiliar situations which these pupils face—a building somewhat awe-inspiring because of its size and its numerous elevators, new subjects to be studied, new regulations, and unfamiliar teachers—all summed up in their minds, probably, as a puzzle to be solved.

NEED FOR ASSISTANCE. The *Unknown*, whatever it may be, holds terrors, especially for the emotionally unstable adolescent, and so these children need our help in order to get rid of their fears, and they need our understanding of their home problems which, too often, are heavy for children of their years.

QUESTIONNAIRE. As a means of securing some objective information, the committee prepared a questionnaire which, through the cooperation of the English Department, was submitted to all of the first-term students in Washington Irving, last April. We are not entirely satisfied with the results of this questionnaire because of excessive absence at the time the tests were given. We plan a more extensive study along similar lines this term.

However, these implications seem so important that we submit the following statements:

1. 39% of the students reported that for one or more of the following reasons they did not have time to prepare homework:
   a. outside jobs
   b. work in the home
   c. work in "the store"
   d. care of younger brothers and sisters
2. 93% said they had difficulty with their homework because:
   a. not enough explanation in class
   b. do not know how to study
   c. not enough reference books
   d. assignments too long and too difficult

Two deductions, thus far, seem obvious to the committee; namely, first, that ability to budget her own time in order to include all essential activities is a major need for the ninth year student; second, that study techniques should receive as much time and attention

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as seems necessary in order to make it possible for students (especially those in lower groups) to do their best work.

HOW TO STUDY. Experience seems to indicate that many of the students in our high school, particularly the ninth-year pupils, do not know how to study. Therefore, a certain amount of supervised study for all students might be of assistance in teaching them certain techniques which would enable them to study more effectively at home.

For the slower learners, perhaps, supervised study should be given a regular place in the curriculum—possibly as a part of the lesson plan—with as much time and attention as necessary devoted to it throughout the term, even though it may mean the covering of less ground for a time. Later on, the students may find it possible to work more rapidly because of their practice in desirable techniques.

Dr. Keliher states that "the variation in ability to *get to work* may be due to physical, emotional or mental causes which are so intermixed that they should all be considered in the education of the individual."

We, as teachers, are apt to assume that to the students, "study" implies reflective thinking, as it does to us; but certain girls in our school were heard to define the word in the following ways: "Study means preparing for an examination"; and, "Homework is routine; you have to do it."

It is undoubtedly true that many of these students are in the slower groups because of factors beyond their control, and that, with our help, they may be able to develop certain attitudes and habits which will enable them to step up to a higher level than they have reached heretofore.

John Dewey, in speaking of "the connection between the capacity of thinking and the qualities that are usually called moral," says, *"Sluggishness, parasitical dependence upon others, slackness of taste and similar defects of character cause more deficiencies of mind than do lacks that are distinctly intellectual in origin."* If we can arouse the ambition of our students and their will to work, we may hope for better results.

For the above reasons, the following outline (which is merely suggestive) has been prepared as a lead, for the ninth year students.

Study Outlines—For Students

Definition—reflective thinking—calls for explanation, discussion and illustration, in the classroom

Requisites:

A. Bodily health (as brain and body are dependent upon one another)
   1. Sleep, 8 to 10 hours nightly
   2. Food, the proper kind and amount
   3. Fresh air and sunshine
   4. Recreation, outdoors if possible
   5. A clean intestinal tract—toxins, if carried through the system, interfere with the normal functioning of the body and may cause illness

B. Mental health
   1. Comparative freedom from fear and worry
   2. A hopeful outlook, a feeling of security
   3. The will to succeed (determination to reach your goal)
   4. Pride in achievement (an ambition to do your best)
   5. Ability to get along with people, to make adjustments

C. A plan—which should include the following:
   1. *The time for study*
      Set aside a definite time, the same time each day, if possible. (This means that you will need to plan your day.)
   2. *The place for study*
      A room in which you can be alone is best; but, if this is not possible, then choose the quietest place you can find (the same place each day, if possible).
   3. *The tools for study*
      The following tools are necessary:
      a. an assignment book
         (an assignment to be taken down carefully and dated—you should avoid using slips of paper which are easily lost)
      b. a table, a straight chair and a good light
      c. a dictionary, pad, pencil (sharp), pen and ink or fountain pen, ruler, and if possible, a loose-leaf notebook, (all kept in a regular place so that you do not have to waste time looking for them). If storage space in the house is scarce, an orange crate, covered with a curtain will make a satisfactory place for these things). Additional reference books, encyclopedia, etc., are desirable.

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D. Techniques to be learned:

1. *Reading*

Concentration (fixing your mind on the one thing you are doing) is essential. When your thoughts wander, call them back and keep on doing this until you finally acquire the ability to concentrate for longer periods of time.

First, read through each paragraph in order to get the general picture and to note down every word of which you do not know the meaning (if the meanings of words are not known, the meaning of a sentence will not be clear).

Look up definitions of these words and write them down in the part of your notebook reserved for definitions. Now reread each sentence containing a word that you looked up. Substitute the definition for the word.

Read the paragraph again to find out whether the meanings are clear.

Select the *main* ideas from the paragraph and write them down.

Select any illustrations or explanations and place them beneath the proper main idea.

Try to express the ideas in your own words in order to see whether you understand the meanings. (Do they connect with your previous learnings?) Study from the outline you have made rather than the book. (If you are in the room alone, repeat the statement aloud—both sight and hearing will help you, and you will feel more at ease when you recite in class.)

If possible, have someone question you after you think that you know the lesson. Or frame some questions for yourself and answer them without referring to your notes. If you memorize subject matter without understanding it, you will not remember it for long, and any work which another person does for you will definitely interfere with your success, because it will weaken your own determination to succeed. Later on you will be able to read more rapidly; this will enable you to make summaries and shorten your study time.

2. *Using the dictionary*

If there are several definitions for one word, you must select the one which fits into the sentence you are reading. Many words may be used as either nouns or verbs (*state, record, budget, project, plan, exercise, play,* etc.) and you must select accordingly. To test it, try to use the definition in a sentence, instead of the word.

Study the correct pronunciation as you look up the word.

3. *Using reference books*

The table of contents gives you a bird's eye view of the larger sub-

jects of the book. You can find out from the table of contents whether the book takes up the subject you desire.

The index gives the special topics under which you can find the details needed.

The author—not all authorities are equally reliable, so check with a teacher or with the librarian.

The date of publication of the book to which you refer is important, especially if the material is scientific or historical.

4. *Doing assignments*

When you feel tired, change to some kind of physical work, or take a short walk, or stand by an open window and take a few deep breaths, or perhaps drink a glass of milk.

If you need food or sleep, do not waste time trying to study. You must be rested to study effectively.

You will find it easier to prepare your assignments if you have tried to answer (to yourself) every question which was asked by the teacher, in class, even though she did not call upon you for the answer.

Note to the teacher—This outline presupposes assignments requiring not more than 40 minutes of preparation for the *average* student. A maximum of four assignments a week is desirable.

ORIENTATION COMMITTEE Washington Irving High School

EDUCATION THROUGH THE EYES OF A NEW AMERICAN

(CONTRIBUTOR'S NOTE: *The following composition was written by an evening high school student, Mr. Zalmen Pudlowski, who arrived in the United States four years ago and promptly went to school. I have thought of submitting it to* HIGH POINTS *because the writer is typical of thousands of mature men and women who, deprived of education in their early years, return with quiet persistence and humility to avail themselves of whatever opportunities society offers for self-improvement.)*

"You deserve credit," said a student of the evening high school to his colleague, sitting at a table in the "Automat."

"Why?" I asked.

"Any one who leaves the factory half an hour earlier every day, eats supper after school, and spends the week-ends studying has my admiration."

"I don't think," I replied, "that I am doing anyone a favor by attending school, because education is as essential as food, clothing

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and shelter. During my childhood and youth," I continued, "there were very few schools in Poland. My parents, who were pious, didn't like to give me a worldly education. At the age of three I was sent to a religious school. For people who never saw such a 'school,' it would be difficult to conceive that in the present era such a peculiar institution should exist. The classroom was also the kitchen, dining-room and bedroom of the teacher and his family. About twenty children sat on benches around a table which occupied more than half the room. The children rocked themselves and recited loudly from textbooks. The teacher, whose face was composed mostly of a beard and eyebrows, walked around the children, holding a whip made of twisted leather straps. Study lasted ten hours daily. In such schools I spent more than ten years. Finally I realized that such studies were not only a waste of time, but even harmful for mental development. After a struggle with my parents, I dropped the studies.

"Since that time, for thirty stormy years I have been active in social life. I have spoken for thousands of workers as union leader. I have discussed municipal problems before the City Council. But I have always felt that the lack of a good education hindered my progress.

"The war of 1939 shattered my well-established life. For a year and a half I wandered through various countries until I landed in the United States four years ago. A month after my arrival I was in the classroom of an elementary school for adults. Months passed. I didn't understand anything; I couldn't grasp the meaning of a single English word. I was sure that my effort was useless. Yet I tried further and two years later, I was driven out of the school with a diploma in hand. Now I have almost two years of high school behind me. I like school very much. Here I forget that in Poland, where I left my family, Jews have been tortured in gas chambers and burned in lime furnaces. My own petty troubles of the day disappear, too. I am in school regularly every night, even if I don't feel well.

"Sometimes I ask myself, 'Do I really need education? What for?' The people in my environment don't approve of my desire to learn. I am considered a peculiar type. 'Wise guys' laugh behind my back and call me 'professor.' Others, who studied in their youth, try to convince me that workers can get along without education. Education is good for people who have enough leisure time, they say.

'How long do you expect to study? You probably forget your age. Do you need a diploma in the grave?'"

"Are you influenced by these people?" asked my fellow-student.

"Not at all. But I feel embarrassed sometimes, surrounded by people who preach ignorance."

"What kind of diploma are you working for?"

"I don't think I'll ever receive a diploma, and I confess that I don't care for it," I answered. "What will I do with a diploma? We are too old for college. It is nonsense to think about the practical results of education for us. Besides, I believe that practical purposes should be secondary in education."

"I don't agree with you," he said. "People would never spend years for education if there were no practical benefit. Even the teachers and the school administration use the practical profits of education as an incentive to students. Society in general thinks that way."

"In my opinion, education is a step to mental exaltation. Teachers in general, and the idealistic ones especially, should avoid propagating the ideal of education for practical purposes only. This utilitarian aim, which is assumed by society as an axiom, discourages many people who don't intend to make a career through education, and the result is a tremendous number of ignorant men."

"How do you like your teachers?" my friend asked.

I wanted to describe some of them, but the man in charge of the "Automat" reminded us that it was time to leave.

We interrupted our conversation unwillingly.

ALICE KALOUSDIAN Washington Irving Evening High School

A CLEARING HOUSE FOR TECHNICAL EDUCATION

The development of the atomic bomb demonstrated most clearly the value of cooperative effort. The problem of war training followed a similar pattern. Our practical educators emerged with a vast program to train the military quickly and efficiently. Millions of dollars were expended upon research and the development of teaching techniques, devices and courses of study, in unparalleled diversity.

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A POTENTIAL LOSS. Now, the war is over. What is to become of all this effort? Soon, much will be scattered willy-nilly to any corner willing to house it. Why should all this invaluable material become isolated? Many feel such a procedure to be an educational crime.

A CENTRAL AGENCY. Progress can best be served through group effort and cooperation. Let us apply the concept of the "clearing house" to surplus educational materials. Such a mechanism will enable the rank-and-file teacher to unearth new approaches and the latest information to improve his local situation. The sciences, social studies and the industrial arts would obviously benefit.

How would such a program function? A combination cross-indexed library and museum could be set aside at some central location. It would contain the culled experience of many teaching situations. Such a collation, much of it assembled in usable order now, would be a veritable treasure trove. An example or two will illustrate the difference between the ordinary library and such a conception. A shop or math class feels the need for a better method of teaching the theory and use of the micrometer. Assembled at this source are all the worthwhile approaches that have proved effective. The need may be for a chart, film, model, device, or even a mimeographed sheet. The important point to remember is that here ideas do not die or become pigeon-holed. Everyone can get at them.

BENEFIT FOR ALL. Let us follow such a thought further. The war effort has provided such a functioning "core." Why not add to this "clearing house" of useful information? How often have visits to other classrooms and shops brought forth exclamations over the ingenuity or resourcefulness of that teacher? I think we are over the day of the "trade secret" in teaching. All stand to gain if all improve. Shall we not then see the "clearing house" grow through the valuable contributions of alert instructors? It is not only inefficient, but downright stupid, for the many continually to cope with recurring problems, already solved adequately by some. Their efforts can be used to advantage for new probing. Let us then be mature and logical. This educational bank must tend to raise classroom standards through example and inspiration. Such an innovation, the "clearing house," will preserve, sustain and further the

tremendous educational search, instituted by the war. It will be the repository for better ways of teaching.

In so short a space, no plan is offered for the institution of such a program. Those responsible should not miss the obvious value of reclamation of material, so necessary to alert classroom teaching. We cannot have isolated classrooms in an interrelated education without narrowing horizons.

OSCAR WRIGHT Haaren High School

PROPAGANDA IN THE CLASSROOM

Most teachers of English and the Social Studies recognize the wisdom of avoiding partisan bias in treating controversial subjects in the classroom. The obvious necessity of maintaining an attitude of strict impartiality, whatever one's private views may be, in teaching a lesson on currently debated topics is generally conceded. The rule against using the classroom for propaganda is well established and seldom has to be officially invoked. Access to immature minds is a precious privilege which a democratic society guards jealously, and the deliberate abuse of this privilege, whether for personal, party, or sectarian advantage, must be accounted nothing short of an unpardonable breach of trust.

Surprising, then, is Mr. Nosofsky's frank recommendation, in the pages of this periodical,* that the ideal of objectivity and neutrality be "jettisoned" in the treatment of economics and that teachers openly disseminate certain popular political and economic slogans as the embodiment of "scientific" truth. It is, of course, for the teachers themselves to judge whether he has adequately countered the specific criticisms that I ventured to make of his leading ideas.† But I do feel obliged to point out that what is at issue between us is certainly not the question whether I and "a goodly number in educational circles" are animated, as Mr. Nosofsky states, by a "hidden desire for self-frustration."** Derogatory remarks about the motives—and the unconscious ones, forsooth!—of those with whom one disagrees may be an effective technique of propaganda,

* *Economics and Intercultural Education*, November, 1944.
† *Philosophy of Intercultural Education*, March, 1945.
** *Mr. Goodman Answered*, June, 1945.

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but they have no place in the kind of criticism to which I propose to subject Mr. Nosofsky's views.

ONE SIDE. On the one hand, he explicity rejects the totalitarian ideal of science and pedagogy. He says that he wants the social scientist to be free from political or ecclesiastical interference so that conclusions may be reached purely on the evidence. Only then can they properly be called "scientific" conclusions—open to objective demonstration and verification, proof against rational criticism, and subject at all times to qualification or reversal on additional evidence. Of course, in presenting such conclusions to a class, a teacher need never be at a loss to defend them rationally.

THE OTHER. On the other hand, Mr. Nosofsky wants the social scientist, *in his capacity as a scientist,* and the teacher, *in his capaicty as a teacher,* to take a stand on controversial issues. A scientist, however, can call his conclusions "scientific" only if they are really the result of a dispassionate, impartial, open-minded exploration of all hypotheses relevant to the problem before him. If he allows his preconceptions to close his mind to the evidence, his conclusions will not have scientific status. Similarly, a teacher remains an educator only in so far as he is not a special pleader for some interested party; education, at least in a democracy, does not consist in indoctrinating students with a given set of party slogans but in equipping students with the facts and techniques of thinking suited to the elucidation of the problems studied. What is to be taught is not a conclusion, but a method of arriving at a conclusion and the background necessary for an intelligent discussion of the problem.

SCIENCE AND POLITICS. Mr. Nosofsky takes exception to my statement that science, whether it deals with physico-chemical changes or with persons in social relations, can tell us only what *is,* not what *ought* to be. He thinks that this limitation "betrays the meaning of democracy." However, the question of the proper domain of science is affected by political considerations only in a total state, where science has to be subservient to certain alleged unquestionable political "truths." The conclusions of the unbiased social scientists, on the other hand, are necessarily factual, i.e., descriptive rather than prescriptive, for the simple reason that one cannot logically derive an "ought" in one's conclusion if there is no

"ought" in one's premises. All that can be said with the authority of social science is that an end or purpose can or cannot be attained by the means (political, economic, etc.) which the scientist has investigated.

LIMITS OF SOCIAL SCIENCE. The social scientist is thus an authority only in the sphere of his subject matter, a sphere not so freely extensible that it can be made to include, as Mr. Nosofsky thinks, "the final values and objects of life itself."* When the social scientist transcends this limitation and ventures to judge of the ultimate values of existence, he can no longer speak in the name of science; he is arrogating to himself the role of the spiritual mentor or the political propagandist. His role as a scientist is limited to that of the disinterested observer of the social world; to the extent that he becomes an active and interested party in its controversies, he must doff the mantle of scientific detachment and objectivity and frankly consult his own desires. Science is held in high respect precisely because scientists are known to be disinterested. Those who use the name of "science" as an honorific designation for their own political or economic programs abuse the esteem and authority legitimately won in the field of unbiased research.

THE IDEAL OF OBJECTIVITY. Mr. Nosofsky argues that there is an element of bias even in so-called scientific works and that textbooks, curricula, and administrators all take "some position on controversial issues." All this is quite irrelevant. If bias were easy to eradicate, there would be no problem of objectivity. *Objectivity is one of the ideals or goals of science and teaching, not one of their present achievements.* The fact that certain works, courses of study, or teachers, though otherwise quite scientific, betray traces of partisanship in their treatment of controversial topics is surely not a matter for rejoicing, much less an argument for outright—as against concealed—propaganda. A service is rendered to truth, and consequently to democratic education, whenever uncriticized preconceptions are exposed; to glory in them is to apotheosize accepted dogma,

* These words he quotes approvingly from the writing of Mannheim. For a more explicit and detailed refutation of Mannheim's "sociology of knowledge," see Chapter XIV, *The Objectivity of Social Science,* of Felix Kaufmann's *Methodology of the Social Sciences,* Oxford University Press, 1944.

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conventional myth, and arbitrary intuition at the expense of untrammeled reason. The imposing edifice of science and the whole history of the struggle of truth-seekers against the forces of superstition is eloquent testimony that prejudice is not ineradicable. But, of course, one must first have the will to be objective and detached, and this is precisely what Mr. Nosofsky disparages.

In criticizing the slogans that Mr. Nosofsky proposed teaching, I ventured to point out the emptiness of the popular antithesis between *"human rights and property rights."* He thinks that by some "casuistry" I have *"verbalized out of existence one of the most persistent conflicts in human history."* I will not pursue here the arguments I originally presented on this point, since they remain untouched by Mr. Nosofsky's remarks. This is not the place to enter into a refutation of the fallacious Marxian doctrine that there is an "age-long conflict" of rights between economic classes. What has to be observed is simply that this thesis is rejected by a number of quite distinguished historians, and economists, to say nothing of laymen. This fact does not settle the issue, of course, but does render it controversial, i.e., one not suitable to the kind of dogmatic presentation which Mr. Nosofsky proposes. He places great stress on the fact that the criticized slogan is "American" and "democratic" because it was invoked by Lincoln, Jefferson, and Franklin Roosevelt, as well as by the anti-slavery forces and the adherents of FEPC and TVA. But this too is irrelevant. The use of a political slogan in some historical controversy is not *ipso facto* proof that the slogan is American or democratic in the honorific sense in which these words are used by Mr. Nosofsky; in fact, it does not even prove that the slogan correcly represents the issues of the particular controversy in which it was invoked. This point can readily be appreciated by anyone who cares to examine the slogans advanced by the opposing party in the controversy—the slave-owners during the Civil War or the opponents of TVA and FEPC today. It seems to escape Mr. Nosofsky entirely that, from the point of view of objective science, it is no more possible to prove the validity of a political slogan by citing its use in some historical controversy than to use a political slogan as a guide to the understanding of history.

PRESSURE GROUPS. The same confusion infects his proposed treatment of the question of racial, national, and religious minorities. One can understand why the highly articulate, not to say

vociferous, leaders of the strong pressure groups organized by appealing to the discontented members of persecuted minorities should be anxious to bring their propaganda into the schools, and even why some teachers sympathetic to the aspirations of these groups should affiliate themselves with them. But publicly supported educational institutions and teachers paid out of public funds have a duty to refrain from engaging in this promotional activity in the course of performing their official work. Many members of the very minority groups on whose behalf certain teachers have appointed themselves classroom propagandists do not at all support the programs of the pressure groups supposedly formed in their interest. Our schools do not exist to spread the doctrines of only the organized and militant pressure groups in the community.

Each of these groups has been bringing pressure on the schools to teach the "contributions" to civilization and culture which its members have made. Despite the fact that every social scientist of repute has pointed out the fallacy of ascribing the achievements of an individual to the credit or discredit of the national or racial group in which the accident of birth has placed him, Mr. Nosofsky advocates teaching as "scientific" that the Italians "as a group" have contributed to the musical life of America (in order, presumably, to offset the equally fallacious propaganda which attributes to this group as a whole certain socially undesirable traits). He himself admits that not every Italian is musical. Nor, it may be added, has it ever been demonstrated that Italians are more musical than people of other nationalities. What, then, is the point of bringing up the question of nationailty at all? A man's race, religion, nationality, are assigned to him by virtue of a *definition* that explicity enumerates *all* the traits relevant for identifying a particular individual as a member of the defined group. The same individual may belong to any number of groups, e.g., males, college graduates, fathers, automobile owners, etc. Which group is to get credit for his achievements? The most militant and the best organized? I leave the answer to Mr. Nosofsky.

ARTHUR GOODMAN The New York School of Printing

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NEEDED: AN INDOOR SPORTS ARENA

Current talk of a new civic center in the Borough Hall section of Brooklyn in conjunction with a much-needed housing project in that area brings up the problem of proper athletic facilities for those who compete under the banner of the Public Schools Athletic League. It is a well known fact that the City of New York, and even private sports promoters, have failed to provide suitable athletic facilities for this borough of nearly three million people.

With the recent "coaching" strike helping to bring schoolboy sports into the limelight, something should be immediately done about building an indoor sports arena for the use of our junior high and high school athletes who welcome the opportunity of performing in big-time environment.

True, there is Madison Square Garden, where high school basketball tilts are hurriedly rushed through on afternoons—or the Brooklyn Ice Palace, where ice hockey players were forced last year to engage in 6 A.M. and 7 A.M. practice sessions—or the regiment armories where accommodations and playing fields were always poor. In addition, there may be approximately thirty outdoor athletic fields under the jurisdiction of the Bureau of Health Education. However, there is not one indoor stadium that the Board of Education can boastfully call its own for track and field meets, softball games and basketball contests, where schoolboy society can perform in something resembling grand style.

While an indoor sports stadium is sorely needed in each of the five boroughs, it is impossible to adopt such a program at this time. However, since the new civic center in Brooklyn, which is convenient to all other boroughs, is in a formative state, this site would make a most ideal set-up for both contestants and fans.

Indoor forums, arenas or sports emporiums, regardless of what they are called, are the pride and joy of many a municipality outside Greater New York.

BARNEY AIN
Chief Clerk, Bureau of Attendance

AN AMERICAN YOUTH HOSTEL CLUB FOR EVERY HIGH SCHOOL

About ten years ago Monroe and Isabel Smith of Northfield, Massachusetts, founded the American Youth Hostels (A.Y.H.). The idea started in Germany before the Nazi domination and included

over 2,000,000 youths of Europe. Membership in America numbers about 15,000, but it is spreading rapidly in our high schools and colleges.

AIMS. The threefold aims of hosteling are:

1. To lead the youth of the world back to nature and a natural life; to help them discover the particular joys of the leisurely modes of travel —cycling, hiking, skiing and canoeing.
2. To train youth in self-discipline and independence. The hostelers plan their own trips, manage their finances, do their own marketing and cooking, and share the work about the hostels.
3. To prepare youth for universal brotherhood and peace. In his own and in other countries, the hosteler finds himself after his day's journey one of a group of young travelers gathered in the common room of the hostel. Folk songs are sung. There is dancing and storytelling, and the exchanging of ideas and experiences.

Our late President F. D. Roosevelt endorsed hosteling in a note to the Smiths . . . "from the time I was nine till I was seventeen I spent most of my holidays bicycling on the Continent. This was the best education I ever had. . . . The more one travels the better citizen he becomes, not only of his own country but of the world."

APPEAL OF HOSTELING. Hosteling has a strong adventure appeal to our secondary school boys and girls. The cost is low, only about a dollar a day including overnight accommodations. Drinking, smoking and gambling are taboo at all hostels. About 90 per cent of all hostelers travel via bicycle. The rest go afoot or paddle a canoe. Membership is open to everyone from 4 to 94 years of age at annual dues of $1.50 for minors and $2.50 for adults.

NEED FOR PUBLICITY. The writer has just returned from a one week hostel tour via bicycle on Cape Cod. Many high school students were enjoying hosteling. However, few, if any, New York high school students were encountered on the road. It seems that knowledge of this great youth movement should be spread among our student population to a greater extent. Even some faculty members of our schools have a vague knowledge of what hosteling is all about.

During the past ten years not a word of adverse criticism has been leveled against hosteling by educators, athletic directors, etc. With the return of our service men, hosteling should take a great

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upward swing. Hosteling is not all work but gives opportunity for romance as pictured in "The Song of the Open Road."

Every New York high school must have one faculty member who has enjoyed hosteling or is interested in this movement. This person would organize a *High School Hostel Club*. Every student should be eligible to join even if not a hostel member. It should be one of the most popular clubs with a splendid indoor and outdoor program.

A TYPICAL PROGRAM. Some activities of the Hostel Club at Newtown include:

Indoor

1. Regular meetings where members relate their summer and vacation tours
2. Lectures and motion pictures of hosteling (may be secured from A.Y.H.)
3. Hostel book-shelf project for school library (books, clippings and articles on hosteling)
4. Touring Bureau to plan and organize trips via bicycle, afoot, etc.
5. Assembly program with guest speakers on hosteling
6. Correspondence with foreign hostel groups
7. Hostel poster display
8. Display of hostel equipment, sleeping bag, canteen, maps, Handbook
9. Writing of an article for A.Y.H. Handbook or *Knapsack*
10. Literature of bicycling, hiking, canoeing, skiing, skating, etc.

Outdoor

1. One day trips to places of scenic or historic interest (Students bring and prepare their food.)
2. Students to join one of the official summer hostel tours thru New England, Canada, Cape Cod, Horseshoe Trail, Quebec, (usually a one or two weeks trip)
3. European tours of two months duration as soon as conditions permit (July-August tours to Chile are now possible)
4. The Rolling Youth Hostel (July-August), a complete tour of the United States via train and bicycle
5. A two month tour to Mexico each year
6. Various types of one day hikes for bringing the young people together

APPROXIMATE COSTS. The school faculty adviser need not be present on the overnight tours or summer tours as these are conducted from Northfield with competent leaders (adult college men and women). The weekly tours cost about $15 and the summer trips from $150 to $400. The hostels also provide summer work on

farms tending animals, berry picking, haying, carpentering, attending county fairs and auctions.

Hosteling is a grand adventure and our youth should be informed. Complete information may be obtained by writing to:

Monroe and Isabel Smith
National Directors of the American Youth Hostels
Northfield, Massachusetts

ROLAND C. GEIST
Newtown High School

(Mr. Geist is a leader of A.Y.H. student groups in New York City.)

THE INTERSCHOOL VISIT: A DEVICE IN SOCIAL EDUCATION

Despite the many chances provided for such activity by the multiplicity of schools in New York City, and despite a number of obviously worth-while outcomes, the opportunities offered by the interschool visit as a technique in promoting social education are frequently overlooked by teachers. True, such visits involve certain problems in planning and administration. Consent blanks must be signed and filed. A group of twenty or thirty ebullient youngsters must be escorted through the hazards of a New York subway ride. Arrangements must be made to cover the classes of the teacher assigned to accompany the group. Nevertheless, such trips do provide the pupil with social experiences he does not ordinarily encounter, especially in noncoeducational schools; the question may be raised, therefore, whether they do not merit a more prominent place in our schedule of extracurricular activities.

TRAINING IN SOCIAL ADJUSTMENT. A visit to another school places the youngster in a situation demanding abundant resources of social decorum and poise, an ability to adapt himself to an unfamiliar situation and to adjust to the personalities and behavior patterns of strangers. This is not to imply that the average secondary-school pupil is seriously deficient in social experience. In his contacts with others, in the give-and-take of daily living, in his associations with members of the opposite sex, he often displays a polish and an assurance that his teachers might well envy. But these qualities, it should be noted, are acquired largely within the youngster's own circle of friends; it is only too seldom that he has the opportunity to develop the self-confidence and decorum needed

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in more formal social situations. Yet, in adult life, it is precisely these more formal situations that pose the most difficult and embarrassing problems in poise and adjustment.

SCHOOLS FACE THE PROBLEM. Another point is worth mention. Today, with our growing acceptance of the concept of education as the development of the whole child rather than merely of his intellectual abilities, we are coming to put more and more stress on the acquisition of personal traits and behavior patterns that will make for harmonious social living—both in school and out. This is a legitimate and significant concern of the school; in the words of the Harvard Committee report, *General Education in a Free Society, "The school will be concerned with the health of its pupils, both physical and mental. . . . Mental health has two forms. The first is social adjustment, an understanding of other people and a responsiveness to their needs with its counterpart of good manners. The second is personal adjustment, the individual's understanding of himself, his poise and adequacy in coping with real situations."*

Facing the challenge, schools throughout the city have instituted programs of instruction in manners, etiquette, "human relations," and the like. In some cases, these programs have resulted in required courses in personal and social adjustment; in others, an occasional home-room period has been devoted to them; in still others, their operation has become a matter of incidental or "oblique" teaching in various subject classes. But the importance of the task is generally conceded.

SKILLS MUST BE PRACTICED. To a large extent, however, such instruction takes place in a vacuum. While preaching good manners at the student, we have offered him only the most limited opportunities to participate in situations where he can practice what we preach. And, of course, it is a commonplace in methodology that skills of any sort cannot be adequately mastered unless frequent and varied occasions are furnished for the pupil to apply them, to use them in relevant circumstances. Habituation and experience are necessary for the development of any skill, and it is part of the teaching process to provide activities promoting such habituation and experience.

If we expect the student to translate abstract principles of social decorum into practice in his daily life, we must meet the obligation

of arranging a variety of laboratory experiences in which these principles can be put to use. And it is regrettable that so much of our instruction to date (based, apparently, on the premise that poise will be poise) has been mere verbalism—as effective as trying to teach a pupil to type without giving him a chance to use a typewriter. Unless it is carefully motivated and followed by realistic participation in actual situation, classroom instruction into the social amenities tends to degenerate into empty moralizing; it's like leading the horse to water and then denying him a chance to drink. The instruction must be implemented by the provision of real-life situations in which the social amenities can actually function.

A VISIT TO BAY RIDGE. Recently a group of twenty-five second-term boys from the annex of the Brooklyn High School of Automotive Trades was invited by Miss Elizabeth T. Fitzpatrick, principal of Bay Ridge High School, to spend a day at Bay Ridge. The visitors attended an Armistice Day assembly program presented by the radio workshop at Bay Ridge under the direction of Miss Florence Murphy, chairman of the English department; later, after being served a luncheon prepared by girls majoring in home economics, they were escorted through the school and were permitted to observe several classes in session.

ACQUIRING SOCIAL EASE. Since Bay Ridge is an all-girls school, the boys at Automotive Trades set out on the trip in an atmosphere charged with convivial anticipation and assorted odors of hair tonic. Once they arrived, however, and found themselves in the presence of their attractive hostesses, they—undergoing an abrupt, Circean metamorphosis from wolves into sheep—became virtually inarticulate, almost petrified with shyness. At lunch, fortunately, their reserve began to break down. It was highly gratifying, for example, to watch Charlie, always a reticent, rather taciturn student in the classroom, begin to unfold his petals in the warmth of a genial Bay Ridgite's interest in him, and tell her animatedly of his class newspaper and its excellent editorial on brotherhood. In another corner of the room sat Mike, skillfully balancing a plate full of food on his knee, fluently describing to Miss Fitzpatrick the career opportunities available in the field of automobile mechanics. Every teacher present shared the feeling that this was a real educational experience, that these boys were learning somthing valuable

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—and learning it under ideal learning conditions. Fully as gratifying was the poise of the hostesses. Although most of them were two or three years older than their guests (a consequential difference during adolescence), they talked to the boys without affectation and without condescension. Because of the real interest these young people displayed in one another's schools, activities, and personalities, there were few awkward gaps in the conversation, and the entire scene was pervaded by an air of friendliness and cordiality. The problem of putting at ease a group of embarrassed young males is one that has baffled many a seasoned hostess. It was rewarding to see the Bay Ridge girls meet the challenge so successfully and so gracefully. In terms of social ease and agreeable human relationships, it would appear that more was accomplished during this single lunch period than could have been achieved by a month of lectures on deportment or of artificial "conversation activities" in the classroom.

After lunch the visitors made a tour of the building and, as a climax, observed a lesson in mechanical drawing. To obtrude a group of twenty-five strange boys into a classroom full of busy girls would seem a foolhardy procedure, certain to create a disturbance. Again, however, the results justified the venture. The girls readily accepted the situation for what it was, and continued with their work. The boys, seeming to realize that whatever impression they made would reflect on their school, behaved in exemplary fashion. Having themselves just completed a course in trade drawing, they walked quietly about the room, observing the work of the class, showing a serious interest in the project under way, and interestedly talking to the girls about the problems involved. There was no confusion, no disorder, no disruption of the lesson.

THE FUNCTION OF GOOD MANNERS. During the train ride home and during a follow-up discussion of the visit in class the next day, the comments of the boys were revealing. Of course, there was the usual amount of hearty man-talk, with the expected remarks about redheads and blondes. But there was also a sense of sincere gratitude for the pleasant time they had had, with at least a dozen of the pupils mentioning the cordiality and civility of the girls as something that had impressed them forcefully. The class had been given a convincing object lesson in the desirability of good manners —not as an indication of effete or affected gentility, but as something

that makes for pleasanter social relationships, as something by which, in Alfred Gardiner's words, "we keep the machine of life oiled and running sweetly." Sermons about the need for polite conduct often rouse only disdain in youngsters; here the pupils saw good manners actually functioning and they saw them as something desirable and attractive.

Nor were the boys unaware of the value of the visit as an experience in social adaptation. They had been plunged into a wholly different type of school and social atmosphere from that to which they were accustomed. They were compelled to make a quick appraisal of the situation, to arrive at a quick decision regarding the type of conduct required, and to effect a quick readjustment of their own behavior patterns. Their success resulted in a gain in self-confidence which will in turn lead to a more poised and self-assured handling of similar situations in the future.

While discussing the trip with the class, I intentionally omitted any reference to the convention of the bread-and-butter letter, the thank-you note that is customary in such situations. I could sense that the boys were eager to give tangible expression to their gratitude, but that they didn't quite know how to do so. At length one student happened to ask, "Why was Miss Murphy wearing those flowers on her shoulder?" I explained that the flowers were a corsage which the girls in the radio workshop had given her in acknowledgment of her work in coaching their play. Immediately the spark was struck. "Why don't we send some flowers to Bay Ridge? Let's start a collection!" Several days later a beatuiful bouquet was sent with an appropriate note.

PUPIL EVALUATION. A few excerpts from compositions written by the class will furnish additional evidence of the educational value of the trip and of the impression it made. It is interesting to observe, incidentally, how readily these second-term boys recognized the fundamental educational objectives implicit in the school activities they witnessed. Note, too, how much they were impressed by the neatness and immaculacy of Bay Ridge—an attitude which we can hope will carry over into a sense of pride in the appearance of their own school:

"My visit to Bay Ridge High School was a very pleasant one. I was impressed by the way the girls treated us after the assembly program. They were very friendly toward us and being friendly

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made it very easy for us to talk with them. We really got acquainted with the girls at lunch time when they had lunch with us."

"The impression I received when I walked into Bay Ridge High School was that the school was neat and clean and that the students in the school were cooperative and they were willing to work together. I gathered that by the drawings and projects I saw on display. For example, the assembly program was planned by the students and it was one of the best I ever saw. I enjoyed the program very much, especially the play, which shows cooperation and willingness to work and perform something worth while producing."

"The thing that impressed me most at our visit to Bay Ridge High School was the social way which the girls acted toward us. The school which was a beautiful school was kept spick and span. The stairways were very clean, which proved that the girls liked their school and helped keep it clean. . . . I want to thank the radio class for their wonderful performance."

"The points I liked about Bay Ridge were that the girls had nice manners. . . . When they talked to you, they didn't act silly. When we walked into the auditorium, they didn't make noise and shout and whistle. . . . When we visited their classes they just continued on with their work and asked us how we liked our visit to Bay Ridge and asked us how Automotive was in regard to its training of the boys. . . . When we were going home they asked us if we would visit them again sometime."

"In my opinion of Bay Ridge High School I think that it was one of the best equipped and cleaned schools I have ever seen. These girls were sociable and more mannered than any other girls I've seen. These girls kept that school clean. . . . The girls were beautiful and also the building. . . . The lunch was delicious and I really enjoyed it, and especially the beans."

"What impressed me most on our visit to Bay Ridge High School was the hospitality and courtesy of the students. The students kept an interesting conversation with us as we ate lunch. They also showed us the work they were doing when we visited the different classes. . . . We enjoyed the visit and hope to go there again."

ARNOLD HOROWITZ Brooklyn High School of Automotive Trades

A POSTER PROJECT IN FRENCH

The aim was to relate our French work to some of the problems of the war: sale of war stamps, salvage, rationing, etc. I had just received some posters from Canada* on all phases of the war effort which proved to be the motivation that I needed. The girls were excited about them, since some were duplicates of posters with English texts already displayed in the room (secured from the O.C.D., 93 Park Avenue). They were particularly interested in the difference between the French and English, as:

Roll out the rubber—Récupérez le caoutchouc
Button up your lips—Silence de ta part
Get in the scrap—Aidez-vous en les servant

PLAN FOR POSTERS. When I suggested that we try our hand at planning our own posters for the Parents' Night exhibits, they responded eagerly. I thereupon wrote upon the board various headings, beginning with the main theme

Nous travaillons pour la victoire

then

Achetez des bons et des timbres de guerre
Le rationnement assure à chacun sa part
Récupérez la ferraille
La ferme travaille pour la victoire
Les femmes travaillent pour la victoire
Pensez aux combattants—Donnez des cigarettes, des livres, etc.

Each topic was discussed for ideas:

How does salvage contribute to victory?
Stamps and bonds?
What is rationing?
What is rationed? Why?
How does the farm contribute to winning the war?
What are women doing?

Vocabulary was then listed for each topic. For instance, under *Récupération des métaux* came avions, cartouches, fusils, obus, canons, etc., for *La Ferme,* the animals, their products and vegetables, etc.

NEW IDEAS. The next lesson I went around the room correcting the mistakes in French. By that time their imagination had had time for full play and there were new ideas:

L'ennemi écoute, ne bavardez pas
Faites de votre mieux
Donnez tout de suite; n'attendez pas (la Croix Rouge)

* Department of National War Services, Ottawa, Ontario.

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Le femmes travaillent pour la victoire dans:
Les usines, les armées, les fermes, les écoles—pour aider les soldates qui combattent au front
Récupérez les métaux pour abattre l'axe
the proverb "Les petits ruisseaux font les grandes rivières," showing marmites, fers électriques, théières turning into obus, cartouches, avions, etc.
Un timbre de guerre peut sauver la vie d'un marin
Donnez des cigarettes pour les marins (there was no doubt as to which branch of the armed forces was the most popular!).

COMPLETE POSTERS. When the completed posters were brought in, the originality and talent displayed made me realize the tremendous latent ability which exists in our students. One had pasted cut-out little pictures of cheese, meat, vegetables, fruits, on her paper, drawn legs and feet on each, all marching behind a marine with the caption, *Nous marchons vers la victoire.* There were rationing posters with pieces of sugar, rubber, metal, tea, and in one case even meat. There was the torch of liberty rising above *Nous travaillons pour la victoire.* Everyone contributed, some not so good or original. But there were others worthy of professional artists in design and color, on which the girls must have spent hours of planning and work.

Was it worthwhile? Had the lessons contributed to our war effort? I felt I had my answer when I saw my Chinese student working on her poster—*Aidez la Chine, Nos Alliés!*

DOROTHY SLOAT
Julia Richman High School

BLIND MEN OF HINDOOSTAN

Just as I had begun to hope that I had discovered a clear path through the labyrinth of teaching slow or general course pupils, the reading of two articles in the October *High Points* (*A Slow Class in English* and *Facing the Problems in Teaching the Slow Pupils*) caused additional confusion. Little help can be secured from the plans and teaching devices of colleagues laboring with slow learners if the very term "slow" permits of varied interpretations. We are as befogged as the blind men of Hindoostan, groping disputatiously about the elephant, when one of us can speak confidently of teaching *Julius Caesar* and presenting extended debates in a "slow" class, while another cautions against homework and stresses supervised study. Mr. Bellafiore's class would appear, by the standards of my

school, quite a normal one, while Mr. Lane's admirable devices, though fitting in a great measure the needs of general classes I have taught, still do not solve the problem as a whole. Yet it is imperative that we find a way to eliminate this aimless and fruitless fumbling, and it is with this objective in mind that I offer a few suggestions.

A PROBLEM GROUP. First, a statement of my own teaching problem of last term. I found, combined in one group of twenty-five pupils, eight mentally retarded, nine slow or laboriously plodding ones, and six out-and-out discipline cases,* all on various achievement levels in English (Grades 1, 2, and 3) but all classed as "Generals." This was a problem not covered in Mr. Lane's discussion, nor even, perhaps, remotely envisioned by Mr. Bellafiore. I used, therefore, in addition to methods similar to Mr. Lane's, the following:

1. Very little oral discussion or recitation of a normal nature, the pupil's span of attention to such procedure being very limited.
2. Work on the contract plan with each pupil proceeding at his own level, bringing completed work to the teacher for correction, so that he had an immediate and concrete mark for his own accomplishment. Thus no student was retarded because of the inattention or reluctance of others to work.
3. Composition work, spelling, and sentence drills from pictorial illustrations (magazine covers, newspaper photographs, advertisements, etc.).
4. Compilation of scrap books based on individual pupil interests, with an explanatory paragraph about each item. Supplementary reading could easily be centered about this same topic.
5. Passing mark given as a result of improvement on one's own level, rather than geared to an inflexible standard of achievement.

A STANDARDIZED CURRICULUM. As one who has long been burdened with adjustment, remedial, slow, or general course pupils (the terminology may fluctuate with each change in curriculum or educational theory, leaving the types of pupils themselves unchanged), I feel that comparatively little can be accomplished under present teaching conditions. To end the blind groping, we need a definitely formulated curriculum for the general course, standardized

*Two students were discharged early in the term.

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throughout the city, and a specific understanding of what constitutes a slow or general pupil. Mr. Bellafiore's, Mr. Lane's, and my pupils, in the confusion existing today, are probably classified entirely differently in different high schools. It must be realized, furthermore, that without smaller class units for such special groups, and without the simultaneous reduction of normal class size (at present overcrowded to allow for these smaller units), we shall merely be robbing Peter to pay Paul. But by all means the most necessary adjuncts to our plans for aiding the slow pupils are funds providing for adequate psychiatric and health testing and treatment within the schools themselves, vocational guidance, contact with social agencies —all the dark corners we have been waiting to see illumined by each annual budget of the Board of Education. Visual aids are indeed magic carpets to enable the slow, earthbound imagination to soar, but our hoping will not make the most modern of them available to each school or whisk them into the classroom. How many buildings lack phonographs, motion picture machines, even radios, or have the use of any such aids impeded by involved and inflexible schedules?

TO SUM UP. The suggestions outlined above are, to be sure, neither novel nor radical. They should serve, however, to focus attention upon measures sorely needed if we are to pride ourselves upon understanding and achieving results with retarded high school boys and girls. Without any such relief in sight, we gropers in the darkness with our slow learners will continue to be as ineffectual as our blind men of Hindoostan.

ETHEL F. SOLOVAY — Bushwick High School

Books

Your School and Its Government. By Earl C. Kelley and Roland C. Faunce. Published by National Self Government Committee.

"Public schools cannot pretend to train pupils for citizenship until the schools themselves become laboratories in democratic government." This is the judgment of Dr. Earl C. Kelley, supervisor of secondary education in the Detroit schools, and Dr. Roland C. Faunce, chief of secondary education for the state of Michigan, in their booklet *Your School and Its Government* just published by the National Self Government Committee, 80 Broadway, New York City.

The training of good citizens is the primary responsibility of our schools

The authors assert that the child must practice cooperative living and self-government in the schoolroom if he is to be able intelligently and effectively to take his part in a working democracy when he reaches adult life. It is true that student participation in government is not the whole story in co-operaive living in a school, but it provides the machinery for it and many of our schools are so large that this cooperative living cannot take place unless the machinery is provided.

Here are a few of the many detailed suggestions for making student self-government work contained in this booklet:

1. *The supervisors must have faith in young people.* In spite of the well known fact that adults learn by making and rectifying mistakes, we seldom allow students to make such mistakes. Students best learn what not to do by trying out their ideas and methods.

2. *Nothing good is gained, and much may be lost, by establishing the forms of democracy and withholding its reality.* To accomplish any real learning of democracy we must give boys and girls real responsibilities and privileges. These should be clearly defined and delimited in the G.O. Charter. They should be complete and unabridged within the limits so established. Provision should be made for their gradual extension as students are ready for greater challenge to citizenship. Above all, students should never have cause for suspicion that their powers are not real.

This pamphlet certainly merits a careful study by all teachers and supervisors who are concerned with the problem of pupil participation in school government.

LEON KOSS — Franklin K. Lane High School

Supernatural Horror in Literature—by H. P. Lovecraft, and *H.P.L., a Memoir*—by August Derleth. Ben Abramson, Publishers, New York, 1945.

The perennial vogue, in many guises, of the Gothic novel, the continuing sales of books like Poe's *Tales of Terror* and Bierce's *In the Midst of Life.* have proved the abiding interest of readers in a branch of imaginative fiction that is admittedly minor but not to be scorned. Adult interest in fantasy, whimsy, tall tales, horror stories, is probably the uninhibited remnant of the child's love of make-believe. If all the "comic books" were purchased and read only by children, we might say that adult interests are alien to stories of fantasy, super-science, or terror. But the furtive reading of comic books by adults is a strong indication that interest in stories of the supernatural is not entirely suppressed, though unfortunately it is frequently directed into non-literary channels. The success of a book like *The Uninvited,* or *Pause to Wonder,* is additional proof that adults like, occasionally, to glimpse a world where some of the old laws don't hold.

Howard Phillips Lovecraft is a name unknown to a great many literate Americans, though among a smaller group he ranks as a tribal deity. Recent anthologies of terror and the supernatural have included some of his best stories, so that his fame is spreading. Whether he will finally occupy a niche in American literature as a great minor artist is still to be determined. His talents were early applauded by men like Vincent Starrett, Stephen Vincent

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Benet, William Bolitho, and William Rose Benet. Though during his life time, his work appeared mostly in the pulps (particularly *Weird Tales*) now, a few years after his death, anthology after anthology is including him. Even the Viking Portable Library has reprinted a Lovecraft novelette. He really "arrived" when radio's *Suspense* dramatized one of his weirdest tales, *The Dunwich Horror,* with Ronald Colman in the principal role.

Admittedly influenced by Lord Dunsany, Arthur Machen, and Poe, he yet created stories that were profoundly different from those of his predecessors. Against his occasional verbosity and melodrama must be balanced his narrative gift and flow of language. His stories have an eerie verisimilitude and compelling rationality that cause the reader to accept with one part of his mind what the other part rejects. He claimed frequently that though he respected "realism more than any other form of art," his own limitations formed him into the field of fantasy.

Lovecraft was a keen critic as well as writer. His analysis of the weird story is worth quoting:

"To make a fictional marvel wear the momentary aspect of exciting fact we must give it the most elaborate possible approach—building it up insidiously and gradually out of apparently realistic material, realistically handled. The time is past when adults can accept marvelous conditions for granted. Every energy must be bent toward the weaving of a frame of mind which shall make the story's single departure from nature seem credible—and in the weaving of this mood the utmost subtlety and verisimilitude are required. In every detail except the chosen marvel, the story should be accurately true to nature. The keynote should be that of scientific exposition—since that is the normal way of presenting a 'fact' new to existing knowledge—and should not change as the story gradually slides off from the possible into the impossible."

His own stories, particularly those grouped into *The Cthulhu Mythos* demonstrate his fidelity to the methods described. Though many of his stories have a similar framework, the tales are sufficiently varied to make each a new experience. *The Shadow out of Time,* one of the Cthulhu stories appears in the *Portable Novels of Science.*

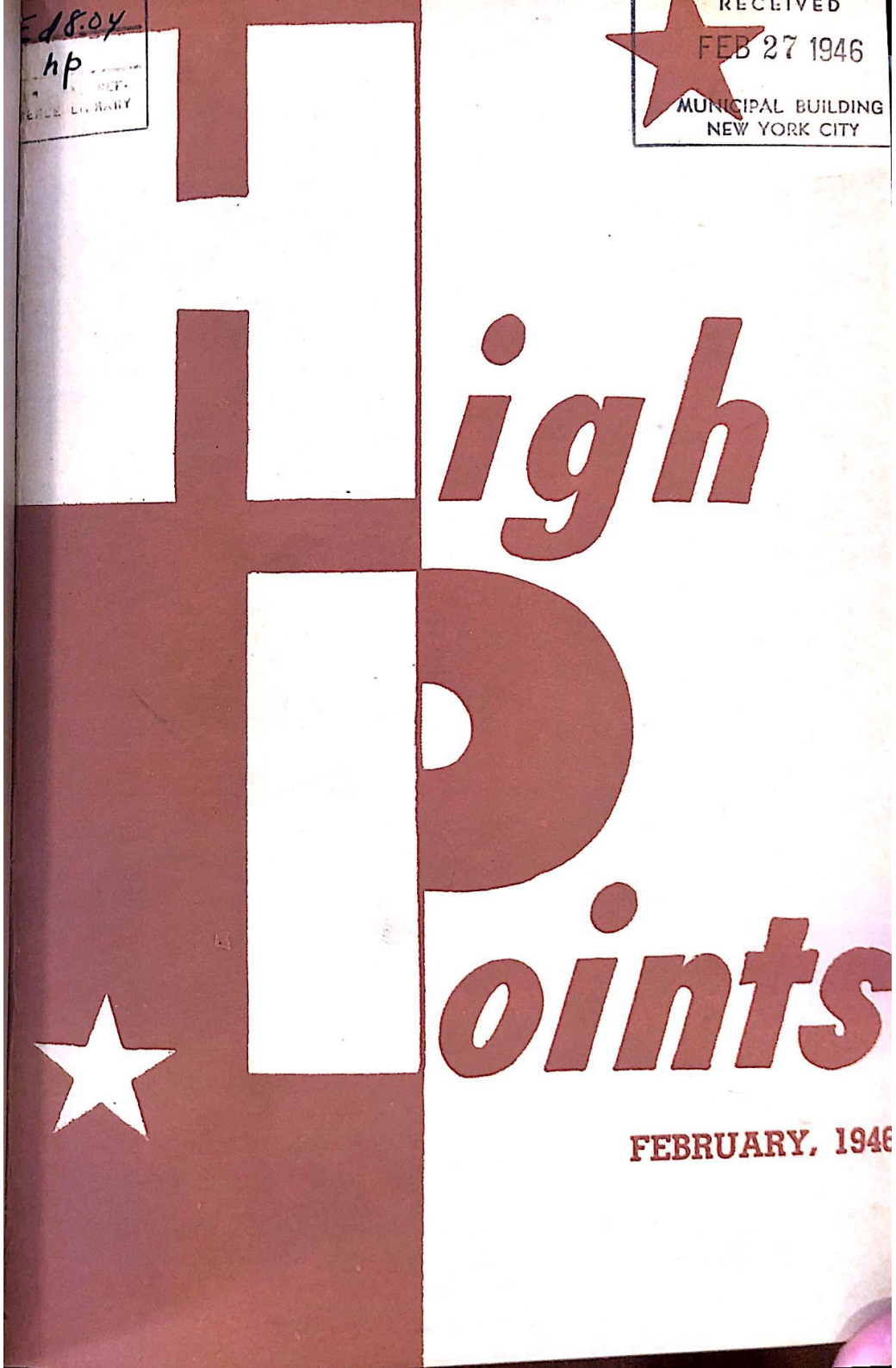
A scholar of considerable depth, Lovecraft devoted a good part of his reading to the supernatural story in England and America. His monograph, *Supernatural Horror in Literature,* opens with an analysis of the origins of horror fiction in antiquity, and then considers the great writers of the genre from Horace Walpole to the present. The study reflects his wide reading, thoughtful analysis, and good taste. The monograph is lucidly written.

The appreciation of Lovecraft, written by his friend August Derleth, shows us a shy, talented recluse, maladjusted to this world, but sensitively skilled in creating fancies out of his brooding imagination. Though he had few casual acquaintances, his friends—most of them writers—admired, respected, and loved him. Though his genius lay in the off-trail story, Lovecraft had many predecessors whose fame has been undiminished. Perhaps Lovecraft, too, will achieve literary immortality.

HENRY I. CHRIST

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HIGH POINTS

IN THE WORK OF THE HIGH SCHOOLS OF NEW YORK CITY

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Lawrence A. Wilkins

1877—1945

Through the death of Lawrence A. Wilkins on December 24, 1945 we lost the distinguished scholar who for twenty years had been the Director of Foreign Languages in the city schools. For twenty years he supervised the foreign language staff after having himself been a high school teacher of French and Spanish. For his work in Hispanic studies he was decorated by King Alfonso of Spain. For his activity in behalf of French he was awarded the *Officier d'Académie.*

His many excellent textbooks were distinguished by careful scholarship, his supervision was characterized by humanity. Through his quiet dignity, disarming modesty, and tireless scholarship, Lawrence Wilkins inspired thousands of teachers and strengthened foreign language instruction in our schools. During his administration French, German, Italian and Latin flourished, and Hebrew was introduced. Over a period of twenty years the foreign language enrollment rose from 60,000 to 160,000.

Probably the best evidence of Wilkins' breadth of vision as an educator was his establishment of *High Points.* He found particular delight in editing this publication, since it had always been his fondest wish to be an editor—not a supervisor.

Having been born in a small town, Des Moines (1877), and, having grown up in a rural community, he did not relish living and working in the big city. As the summer approached, he always looked forward to the blue skies and rocky ledges of Colorado. Unfortunately, unspoiled enjoyment of the majestic scenes of the Far West was not granted him for long. For many years his health had been declining. He bore his sufferings with heroic stoicism, rarely complaining, and continued to perform his duties with the same dignity, modesty, and devotion which had always characterized him. Shortly after his retirement, he lost the faithful companion of his life.

Honest and upright to the core, flattery and fawning were entirely foreign to his nature. He won and held without effort the esteem and affection of hundreds of his colleagues who recognized in him a true gentleman and an inspiring teacher.

THEODORE HUEBENER
Acting Director of Foreign Languages
City of New York

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Clouds of Glory*

JOHN MASON BROWN

In the following article, John Mason Brown has caught the myriad, universal little dramas that are quietly, poignantly, and inescapably a part of every graduation. This is what graduation really means. We commend it to you if you are in danger of regarding graduations as "exercises"—or if you have wondered, as most of us so often have, why graduations are so strangely and invariably moving. [ED.]

We, who are parents, have all been doing it lately. It is part of the season; as inevitable as the robin's return. With scores of other parents, all of us have been crowding in the school gymnasium or assembly room for those exercises which mean that summer vacation has once again overtaken us and our children.

I say THE school because for us, who are not educators, there is only one school at present. And that is the school to which our child goes. There is another. But since it belongs to the past, he cannot be expected to know about it. It is beyond his imagination. Almost beyond ours, too. Accordingly, we do not talk about it. Even so it refuses to remain silent. It is the school each of us went to when we were his age.

We have not thought about it for years. It seemed as lost to us as a view which has slipped by many miles back on a fast-moving train.

Yet suddenly the room we used to sit in, that very junior classroom when we were his age, has superimposed itself upon our vision. The little desks which to us seemed so large. The blackboards which deceived us only by persuading us that all mistakes could be erased. George Washington, looking so pink and white and noble within a black frame, with only his lips puckered uncomfortably. The picture, given by a previous class, of violent flowers blooming violently in a high Alpine valley. Yes, and the teacher. What was her name? I mean the one we had when we, too, were eight. She taught us so much that we cannot have forgotten her name. But we have. Miss —— Miss ——. Oh, yes. Oh, yes, indeed, Miss G——.

All of these, plus friends, close friends, seen as they were then because, though we felt our living depended upon them, most of ——

* Reprinted by permission of *The Saturday Review of Literature* and the author. Italics ours.

them we have not seen since—all of these images have appeared in the already crowded gymnasium. Not taking solid form. No. As fragments. As transparencies. But inhabiting the room and jostling the grown-ups.

On entering the gym, facing those other parents who know us not by our names but only by his name, as *his* parents, we have felt foolish. Both out of place and out of scale. Astonished to find that he already has a full world which we cannot share. Chagrined to discover that we cannot recapture the vanished world which was ours when we were no more venerable than he.

Before and after we sit down on those uncomfortable collapsible wooden chairs, we have the preliminary talks with other fathers and mothers. A goodly number of them have turned out. Men who have stolen away from their offices for an hour or two. Women who have done their ordering early.

A few of the men are in uniform, just back from overseas as their ribbons proclaim. Their happiness is not hidden. Neither is the incredulity they feel at finding that this other world of unblighted childhood still exists. But all of us grown-ups—even those who happen to be friends—have not met as friends this morning. We have met as parents. And in their hearts parents are not always friendly even to their oldest friends, if they too happen to be parents. We are beaming. Each and every face wears that special parental smile.

We wait until nearly all the chairs reserved for adults are filled. We cannot help laughing when a few mothers and fathers, who come in late, sneak as guiltily into the gym as years ago, when tardy, they used to tiptoe into their classrooms. The school atmosphere is contagious; childhood habits can be stubborn.

Although, while waiting, we appear to be looking straight into our neighbors' faces as we talk to them, we are not really seeing them any more than they are seeing us. All of our eyes keep wandering to the door through which he will march with his class.

We are wondering if he will see us. We are hoping that he will. At last the moment comes when on the stairs we recognize some of his friends. The sound of them machine-gunning one another in our front hall during a birthday party still rattles in our ears. Then he comes in, and all the rest of the pitcure blurs for every parent there.

He spots us as quickly as we spot him. Although he won't quite disown us, we embarrass him. He smiles so that his missing tooth

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shows. We smile no less foolishly so that all our teeth show. We share his embarrassment until we suddenly discover that every parental head around us is bobbing up and down and grinning as ridiculously as ours is. And that every little boy is scanning the audience, in this meeting of the three junior grades, and indulging in precisely the same happy simpers that he is.

Much as we may try to stifle them, the parental emotions last throughout the exercises. When the prizes and honors are being distributed, all of us keep hoping against reason, that he will be named each time. We listen expectantly. We applaud, and applaud sincerely, when time after time some other boy is named. We even nod our heartfelt congratulations to the parents. Yet each of us is mildly and foolishly disappointed. Until his name is at last called out. Then we hear it with our hearts rather than our ears. And we pretend not to look as absurdly proud as we feel.

There are many, many moments, when, in spite of ourselves and not only because of him, all of us find our eyes filled, our throats hurting. No tragedy is more moving in its misfortunes than youth is in its lack of them; in its innocence, in its faith, its wonder, its trust, its unsmudged radiance, it unawareness of what will overtake it, and the impossibility of our foreseeing or forestalling what must be.

The helplessness of parenthood is its chief anguish. Another source of sorrow is the realization that, though one may soften, no one can ever receive the blows intended for another. Even at eight, boys stand alone in the world, though they neither know it nor suspect it, and we console ourselves by pretending this is not true. Even at that age, when they leave the classroom they have relished this year for the untried one which will house them in the fall, they have had a preview of that bitter reality which condemns what has been from ever being again, at least precisely as it was. It is the intimations of mortality, not immortality, that devastate parents in the presence of their young.

To hear the Oath of Allegiance repeated before the flag by small boys without any awareness of how final the future responsibilties of that oath may be for them is to have the heart tugged violently. To hear "Onward Christian Soldiers" sung in high, uncertain voices by youngsters to whom war is a delectable game to be played at, because they cannot comprehend pain and have not yet been forced to recognize death, is to have one's self-possession challenged. To

listen to these same voices, and look upon these same faces, untroubled and unsuspicious, as these children sing "And crown Thy good with brotherhood From sea to shining sea," is to know how pulverizing goodness itself can be.

No book about world organizations, no plan to have emerged from any conference, makes the dream of peace seem as blessed, or its need as imperative, as one of these simple exercises at which he and his friends are present—they who may yet be the victims of an uncertain but avoidable future. Alexander, Caesar, Napoleon, Napoleon III, and Hitler—all of them were childless, at least when they first disrupted their worlds. The conquerors should be compelled to attend such exercises as these and see, not other people's sons for whom they have no regard, but their own unexpendable children take part. The peace-planners, too, who are apt to bargain and wrangle at the cost of future deaths, might likewise benefit by being forced from time to time to foregather at one of these simpler assemblies.

For in many ways youth has more to teach its parents than to learn from them. The real savages are the old, not the young. Much of what the young learn from their elders they acquire at their peril. The world's tragedy is that it must be grown up; in other words, that it must be run by men who, though they know much, have forgotten what they were in their youth.

The Harvard Report and English

JOSEPH BELLAFIORE, Fort Hamilton High School

This recent report has been hailed as a landmark in the history of American education, and rightly so. Its chief value derives from the fact that it is a synthesis of current liberal thought in America. We as English teachers should read it for its inspiring concept of the philosophy of education and for its specific recommendations in the fields of literature and expression.

CRUCIAL QUESTION. The central question which this report

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deals with may be stated as follows: *"How can general education be so adapted to different ages, differing abilities, and differing outlooks, that it can appeal deeply to each, yet remain in goal and essential teaching the same for all?"* In formulating their answer, the members of the committee reach a middle-of-the-road accord between tradition and experiment by showing that both heritage and innovation are necessary in our democracy. Here is the basic plan they propose for our schools. At the center of the scheme of general education would be the three inevitable areas of man's life and knowledge: *the physical world, man's corporate life, his inner visions and standards.* In high school, these three areas should form a continuing core for all, taking up at least half a student's time: 3 units in English, 3 units in science and mathematics, 2 units in social studies. The remaining 8 units would provide the necessary specialism in vocational and business courses, work in the arts, agriculture and home economics, and other practical fields. All, then, whatever their future intentions, would have the binding experience of the common core; and all would follow some special field of interest.

EDUCATION'S AIMS. What are the goals and the outcomes of such a plan for our schools? Education seeks to do two things: *help young persons fulfill the unique, particular function in life of responsible human beings and citizens in a democracy, and give them competence in some occupation.* The outcomes of education consist in certain traits of mind: *to think effectively, to communicate thought, to make relevant judgments, and to discriminate among values.* Thus the fruit of education is intelligence in action; the aim is mastery of the art of living. Dewey expressed the same idea more succinctly when he said, *"The function of education is to make the student individually efficient and socially serviceable."* Why is the Harvard Report a timely re-statement of this philosophy? In a natural reaction against the inherited type of formal and bookish learning, educational practice has tended to swing to the opposite extreme and to replace the traditional courses of the curriculum with highly specific and practical courses. The danger here is that *training* is being substituted for *education.* More recently a reaction to the reaction has appeared, which would place great books in a central, even monopolistic, position and which tends to identify education exclusively with cultivating the ability to think. The

Harvard committee have taken a position somewhere between these two.*

POLICY IN ENGLISH. The Harvard Report sets forth the following chief points on the teaching of English as a language and literature.

A. Faults in teaching literature
   1. Stress on factual content as divorced from design.
   2. Emphasis on literary history, on generalizations as to periods, tendencies and ready-made valuations-in place of deeper familiarity with the texts.
   3. Strained correlation with civics, social studies.
   4. Overambitious technical analysis of structure, plot, figurative language, prosody, genre.
   5. Use of critical terms (Romanticism, Realism, Classical, Sentimental) as tags, coming between the reader and the work.
   6. Didacticism: Lessons in behavior too closely sought. These dangers are familiar to reflective teachers, as are their opposite extremes:
   7. Superficial reading of too much, with no close knowledge of either the content or its import.
   8. Lack of any aids to the understanding of what is being read.
   9. Indifference to or ignorance of techniques of literature.
   10. Avoidance of critical terms and appraisals when the student is ready for them.
   11. Irresponsible attitude to the implication of what is being read.

B. Implications for teaching literature
   1. That division into intellectual, aesthetic and ethical components is for analysis only. The whole mind, in which these are not separable, is at work in literature always.
   2. That ethical results of literature are not to be seen as obedience to a body of precepts, but come in quickened imagination, heightened delight, and clearer perspective.
   3. That a common body of tradition—to accept, to revolt against, either way to work from—is our primary protection against ethical ignorance.

C. Choice of texts in literature
   1. The limits of available time to be kept in mind. Less to be studied rather than more. Omissions to be planned, not settled by the accident of shortage of time.
   2. Old and new writing to be proportioned with regard to a two-way traffic between:
      (a) The new as more immediate and leading to the more remote.
      (b) The old as explaining the tradition on which more difficult modern writing depends.

* Teachers interested in evaluating the line of reasoning upon which the Harvard Report is based will find a very stimulating and interesting critique by Jacques Barzun in the *Atlantic Monthly* for October, 1945.

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3. The values of American and English literature and of other literature in translation to be balanced.
4. Texts for classroom study to be supplemented by less difficult books for outside reading.
5. Guidance to be provided since a chief end sought is extensive discriminating private reading.
6. Emphasis on mere number of books read or book reports made to be questioned.
7. Proper liberty to be secured for teachers in choosing the texts they can handle best, with enough organization to prevent undesirable duplication.
8. Historical sequence to be followed only if illuminating to the literature read.

D. Develop better reading habits and skills

As means to developing better reading, stress to be laid:

1. On intensive, close study of well-written paragraphs and poems which are saying important things compactly.
2. On what a word is doing in a place on a page, in addition to its dictionary sense and the dependence of this upon the context.
3. On the normal ingredients of full meaning: the literal sense, the metaphoric implication, the writer's (or speaker's) mood, his tone, his intent, his attitudes toward his point, his reader, himself, his work, and other people and things.
4. On the utility, almost the necessity, of metaphor; and the fruitfulness of intensive imaginative study of how the mind relies on the parallels in all its doings.
5. On paraphrasing of the thought of an original passage analytically for purposes of elucidation, but not as an exercise of synonym-trading or as an attempt to compete with the literary quality of the original.
6. On the value of reading aloud for interpretation, and of choosing poems and passages of lasting significance to be memorized.
7. On the economy of reading at different speed and with different emphasis for different purposes.

E. Improvement of written and oral expression

For improvement in writing and this goes largely for oral expression as well, stress on the following:

1. Constant practice, with recognizable problems of expression graded to the shaping mind.
2. Enough short exercises to permit of careful criticism and revision without undue strain.
3. Exercises close enough to student's interests to develop their capacities.
4. Coherence, closeness of observation, integrity of purpose, freshness of attack.
5. Observance of minimum essentials in mechanics, the manners of discourse. Instruction where necessary in use of dictionaries and other references.

Evaluation of Some Basic Recommendations

1. *"The unsolved problem of the high schools is to reach students who do not read well, yet are not skilled in hand, whose backgrounds are bad, who in cities especially are a prey to a thousand mercenary interests. We must teach not by books and information alone, but by work, guidance, and atmosphere."*

This problem has been with us for many years, ever since compulsory education laws forced these youngsters who would have left school for jobs to stay with us. We have met it by modifying the curriculum, by introducing shop courses, by sponsoring sports and club activities, and by introducing the mass appeals of movies, radio, and newspapers in the classroom. However, the guidance program has been chiefly a makeshift affair because the teachers selected for group-counseling often carry too heavy a burden—sometimes one teacher for as many as six hundred students—in addition to their regular teaching assignments. Part-time work which brings these pupils a measure of self-respect makes them resent school work which results in a series of subject failures. The present policy of granting work-credit experience toward graduation only for employment related to commercial subjects penalizes unnecessarily those engaged in jobs of other types.

2. *"The course-unit system is a divisive force in the high school. It divides the work into unrelated islands of experience and alienates students from each other in mind and outlook."*

The core curriculum, now in progress in several of our high schools, may provide that unity of approach and cohesiveness of learning. Meanwhile, alert teachers seize every opportunity to correlate their own subject matter with that of other areas of learning and the pupil's own experience. Since high school prepares not for college but for life, the present system of "majors" and "minors" and the condescension toward "practical arts" as opposed to the purely academic studies, should be thoroughly revised if we wish to make our schools truly democratic.

3. *"These three areas should form a continuing core for all, taking up at least half a student's time: English, science and mathematics, social studies."*

Top priority is given to literature as the central humanistic study; none will gainsay this. However, the obvious exclusion of foreign languages seems somewhat short-sighted, especially in view of the

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current awareness of international interdependence in a world shrunken in size by aviation and atomic energy. Since the report makes a special plea for "general education," any liberal subject which forms part of the democratic heritage deserves to be included.

4. *"General education must consciously aim at these abilities: at effective thinking, communication, the making of relevant judgments, and the discrimination of values."*

Here we find the traits of mind which serve as the ultimate objectives of our teaching-learning processes. The pivotal point upon which these four intellectual disciplines revolves is the norm or standard for making judgments and appraising values. If we choose only "experiment" and "pragmatism" as our criteria, general education will shift with every innovation in thinking and change in experience. If we select only "the Western tradition" and "modern democratic society" as our criteria, general education will continue our inalienable heritage. The report rests its case by stating that we must reconcile the two philosophies. At any rate, we all agree that the goal of education is essentially moral: the belief in the dignity of man and the recognition of his duty to his fellowmen.

Formulating Essay Type Questions

SIDNEY N. BARNETT, High School of Music and Art

With the beginning of each new term comes renewed speculation about the contents of uniform examinations. In a recent article in *High Points* the author called attention to certain practices in the construction of objective questions. Here the author offers a few suggestions with respect to the formulation of essay questions. Experienced teachers will recognize the types which follow as part of their own stock in trade. For others not so experienced these may serve as helpful suggestions.

The types herewith presented are not all original with the writer. Basic ideas were derived from two sources: first, from teachers in our social studies department here at the High School of Music and Art who have cooperatively aided in the makeup of uniform examinations; second, from colleagues who are chairmen of social studies departments in other schools. It will be of interest to note that the second source was made possible by a voluntary pool created among a group of social studies chairmen. The Association of

Chairmen of the Social Studies is now in process of broadening this program among its entire membership by setting up Committees of Correspondence. Interested suprevisors in other subject fields may secure information about this plan from Mr. Michael Glassman, Samuel J. Tilden High School, who is serving as chairman of its Clearing House Committee.

Herewith follow ten types of essay questions which, with appropriate variations, can be applied in any uniform examination.

I. Take Home Type

Directions: This part of the Uniform Examination in Civics is to be done at home. You may discuss the question with your parents and other relatives, with your classmates and other friends. When you have decided that you are ready to answer the question, you will then write the answer without help or assistance. Be complete and thorough in your answer.

Your school is holding elections for President of the General Organization. Three students, Herbert Cohen, Patrick O'Grady and Sam Brown, have been nominated. In the discussion about the candidates, your classmates raise the following questions. The answers to these questions are given by members of the class and are listed on the blackboard under each name.

	HERB	PAT	SAM
1. How tall is he?	5'2"	5'8"	5'6"
2. What is his father's financial status?	poor	rich	well-to-do
3. How does he dress?	carelessly	well	well
4. What is his favorite newspaper?	Post	PM	Times
5. What is his absence record?	good	poor	excellent
6. Is he well liked?	yes	yes	yes
7. Is he conceited?	yes	no	yes
8. Is he courteous?	no	yes	yes
9. What kind of speaker is he?	fair	excellent	good
10. What is his color?	white	white	negro
11. How good an athlete is he?	fair	good	excellent
12. What is his religion?	Jewish	Catholic	Protestant
13. Is he honest?	always	usually	always
14. Is he politically reactionary?	no	no	yes
15. Does he favor the United Nations Charter?	yes	no	yes

A. Select *three* of the above questions you would consider *important* in choosing candidates for office. State your reasons in each case.

B. Select three of the above questions you would consider *unim-*

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portant in choosing candidates for office. State your reasons in each case.

C. Whom among the three, Herb or Pat or Sam, would you vote for as President of our General Organization? Why?

II. Find the Errors Type

The following story contains a number of errors of fact. Select ten such errors and explain why they are errors. No credit will be given for selection without explanation.

Mr. Addison Sims of Seattle happened to be in New York on Election Day. "How fortunate," he said; "I shall be able to vote for my fraternity brother, Throttlebottom, who is running for Mayor. Good old Gus!" So thinking, he stepped briskly from his hotel and found the nearest election booth, located in the rear of the barroom.

"What'll you have?" asked the bartender.

I'd like to vote," said Sims.

"Certainly, sir," was the courteous response, and the registration book was taken out from behind the cash register. "And your name, sir?"

"It wouldn't be there," said Sims; "I just came to New York. It's Addison Sims."

"Oh well, we have a little more room under the S's; I guess we can register you." After he had registered Sims, the bartender directed him to the other end of the room for a ballot. Sims went there and said that he wanted to vote.

"For what party?" they asked, and when he told them, they gave him a ballot and sent him to a little booth.

"Don't forget to vote for Brown," said the man with an inspector's badge

Sims went in, told the man who came in to help him that he didn't need help, and marked his ballot. Outside the men took it and entered his vote in the book for totals.

Just as he was leaving one of them asked, "Are you a citizen?"

"Oh, no," said Sims! "I'm an Australian."

"We can't count your vote then," he was told. "Why don't you go down and get your first papers so that we can count it?"

"Maybe I will," said Sims. And he went down to the License Commissioner and had no trouble getting sworn in.

He had lots of trouble after that, though. As he walked along, a policeman came up to him and said, "Come along quietly, now."

"Why," he asked, "What's wrong?"

"You'll find out," he was told.

He was taken to the police station and thrown into a cell. The next morning he was brought to court. "I want a lawyer," he said.

"Then you must be guilty," said the judge, "or you wouldn't need a lawyer. What are the charges?"

The clerk said, "He beat his wife two weeks ago and she's just recovering."

Turning to Sims, the judge said angrily, "I'm going to make an example of you. Thirty days in the workhouse."

"Sims protested that it must be a mistake; he had been in Washington two weeks ago.

The judge answered, "Oh, one of those bureaucrats; sixty days."

Sims asked for a jury but he was told that the manpower shortage was too acute. He wanted to call witnesses, but by that time the court had turned to the next case, and Sims was hauled off to the train for Sing Sing, still protesting.

III. Town Hall Meeting or Round Table Type

A. A Town Hall Meeting has been planned on the subject: "Do Colonies Pay?" During the course of the discussion, the following arguments have been presented to support a "Yes" answer to the question:

1. Colonies furnish a safety valve for overproduction at home.
2. Colonies are needed as sources of raw materials.
3. Colonies create a profitable trade bringing wealth to the mother country and enriching everyone at home.
4. Colonies furnish profitable places for investment of surplus capital.
5. Colonies are essential for self-protection especially during war-time.
6. Colonies permit the superior European countries to take up their "white man's burden" with respect to hitherto underdeveloped areas of the world.

As to each of four of the preceding arguments for imperialism, state your opinion as to its truth or falsity. Give specific evidence and illustrations to substantiate your conclusions.

B. At a round table conference on Imperialism, the following arguments were presented:

FOR	AGAINST
1. That backward people are not justified in occupying an area if they do not use it.	1. Imperialism has slowed up progress by impoverishing two thirds of the world's population.
2. That there is a difference between "superior" and "inferior" people; that natives are not as efficient as citizens of the mother country.	2. Imperialism has never benefited the colonial peoples but only the mother country.
3. That colonies are needed for surplus population, place for raw materials, surplus manufactured goods, and surplus capital.	3. Imperialism benefits only a small group in the mother country.

Set forth your opinion in connection with four of the above arguments either for or against imperialism, citing illustrations from imperialist efforts in Africa, the Far East and British Empire.

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IV. Headlines Type

A. The following headlines may have appeared in American newspapers between 1783 and 1815. Select *five* of the headlines, give the approximate date each would have appeared, and indicate clearly and briefly the historical event which formed the basis of the headlines selected.

a. MASSACHUSETTS COURTS STORMED BY DEBTORS. RIOTORS ARE ARMED!
b. NEW YORK CELEBRATES. WASHINGTON TO BE SWORN IN AT WALL STREET TOMORROW.
c. REBELLION IN WESTERN PENNSYLVANIA. HAMILTON TO LEAD FEDERAL TROOPS.
d. EDITOR IMPRISONED FOR CRITICIZING JOHN ADAMS.
e. GENET WARMLY GREETED IN BALTIMORE. STATE DEPARTMENT REFUSES TO COMMENT.
f. SHIPS IDLE. SAILORS DENOUNCE JEFFERSON.
g. WARHAWKS SHOW DEFIANCE. THREATEN WAR.
h. TIE IN ELECTORAL COLLEGE. HOUSE TO DECIDE.

B. VIENNA CONGRESS PONDERS
KNOTTY EUROPEAN PROBLEMS

Diplomats Work Full Time
to Counteract Effects of Napoleon

This headline, which might have appeared 128 years ago in the New York *Evening Post,* does not sound very strange to the ears of Music and Art students who have been pondering post-war problems since the start of the term. The following comparisons with a similar era should help us toward a solution of our modern post-war problems.

A. Explain *two* respects in which the international problems of 1815 resembled those which we expect to face after the war.
B. Explain *two* principles which guided the peace-makers at Vienna, giving an example of each. How did these principles compare with those which you hope will guide our present-day peace-makers?
C. Describe one method formulated in 1815 for maintaining future European peace. Why did it fail? How does it compare with your idea of how to maintain peace after the war?

V. Statistics Type

The following are statements and statistics describing conditions in France during the 18th century.

A. The military and civil household of the king and of the royal family consisted of 15,000 people and cost 45,000,000 francs per year.

B. There were about 130,000 clergymen in France. The church owned from ⅕ to ¼ of the land of the entire country. The 18 archbishops and the 131 bishops were highly paid members of the nobility.
C. In the 10 provinces, $2,000,000 were paid by the lower classes as an income tax, while the two upper orders paid about $400,000. Royal princes paid $36,000 when they should have paid $500,000.
D. A table of wages of city workers published in 1786 showed the expenses of a family of five to be approximately 1,735 francs and the income only 1,533 francs a year.

Choose any *three* of the above statements and for *each one* show how the condition described served as a cause of the Revolution and how the National Assembly sought to remedy the condition.

VI. Cartoons Type

The following cartoons were popular in the past. Select any three and for each one selected:

a. Give the approxiate date when it appeared
b. Explain the significance of the cartoon
   1. A very thin man wearing ragged clothes bears on his back three other men—one is a nobleman; the second, a bishop; and the third, a monarch.
   2. The "third estate" is shown awakening from a long sleep, casting off his chains and terrifying the other two estates.
   3. A group of people walking in a street of Paris stop to watch a cart crowded with men and women going by.
   4. Napoleon is shown on stilts. One stilt is in Spain, the other is in Russia. They are beginning to crack and Napoleon's scepter and crown are beginning to fall off.

VII. Library Books Type

You find the following books in the library (all titles imaginary):

Isaac Newton, Father of the French Revolution
The Bourgeoisie Wishes To Be Something
Writers Who Made A Revolution
The Extravagance of Marie Antoinette
The French Peasant in the Eighteenth Century
The Divine Right to Rule Wrong

a. Which of these books would you pick as most likely to give the best account of the basic reasons for the revolution? Summarize what you would expect to find in that book. (Your answer will be marked on your ability to support your contention by information, not on the basis of the book you choose.)
b. In three separate paragraphs, summarize what you would expect to find as the contents of three of the books other than the one you selected as most basic.

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VIII. Geometric Problems Type

GIVEN: Four sons lost in the Wars of Napoleon.
TO PROVE: That they had not died in vain.

Present your points of view as to the truth or falsity of the above by discussing:

A. Napoleon's work within France.
B. Napoleon's work as to Europe.

IX. Poetry Type

The following lines are from Thomas Hood's *Song of the Shirt:*

Seam, and gusset, and band,
Band, and gusset, and seam,
Work, work, work
Like the Engine that works by steam!
A mere machine of iron and wood
That toils for Mammon's sake—
Without a brain to ponder and craze
Or a heart to feel and break.

With fingers weary and worn,
With eyelids heavy and red,
A Woman sate in unwomanly rags,
Plying her needle and thread—
Stitch! Stitch! Stitch!
In poverty, hunger, and dirt,
And still with a voice of dolorous pitch
Would that its tone could reach the Rich!
She sang this 'Song of the Shirt!'

A. With the above lines as a basis, list and describe the problems affecting the worker in the years after the Industrial Revolution.
B. Show how the capitalist was affected by the Industrial Revolution.
C. In the case of each problem mention in answer to A, show what governments have done to solve these problems.
D. Show how the Socialists have offered to solve the problems of workers resulting from the Industrial Revolution.

X. Dramatization Type

People of France vs. Napoleon Bonaparte
Time: May 15, 1815
Place: Courtroom in Paris, France
Indictment: War crimes committed by Napoleon
Witnesses:

1. A peasant
2. A city worker
3. A schoolteacher
4. A Russian
5. A French soldier

A. Present the story each of *two* of the above witnesses would probably have given at the trial of Napoleon Bonaparte including their reasons.
B. In yyour opinion, should Napoleon have been convicted as a war criminal? Set forth your reasons fully.

Can Reading Ability Be Improved More Effectively Through Wide Reading or Intensive Drill?

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There is a wealth of experimental evidence to show that remedial teaching in reading results in a significant and often startling degree of progress. But "remedial reading" is a teaching approach composed of many varied activities. The two most prevalent activities in remedial classes appear to be 1) intensive exercise and drill on individual reading skills and 2) extensive reading of simple, interesting material.

The experiment herein described was conducted in an attempt to discover the relative effectiveness of the two major types of activity. It seemed desirable to measure the contribution of each to individual and class-reading growth in order to establish the proper emphasis that each should receive in a complex structure of remedial-reading activities. It was also considered that one activity pattern might possibly prove so much more effective than the other that it could, with pedagogical justification, displace it entirely.

CLASSES CHOSEN. Three second-term high school classes were involved in the experiment, two remedial reading classes and, for purposes of control, one regular English class. In the first class, hereafter called the "drill class," reading improvement was sought through intensive exercise and drill on various reading skills. Supplementary reading was neither encouraged nor discouraged. Class work and homework, based largely on one of the mostly widely-used remedial textbook, *Following Printed Trails,* laid stress on such activities as:

1. getting the main idea of a passage
2. recognizing and remembering key words and details
3. visualizing people, scenes, diagrams, etc.

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4. outlining to discover relationship among ideas
5. reading for greater speed
6. learning new words
7. following instructions carefully
8. learning to associate previous knowledge with material being read

Brief exercises occasionally required the class use of newspapers and magazines. The members of the drill class read, in their leisure time, an average of one book during the semester.

THE READING CLASS. In the second class, hereafter called the "reading class," reading improvement was sought solely through extensive reading. Drills and exercises were here assiduously avoided, and no mention was made of the techniques of reading. About eighty books, attractive in format and typography, easy to read, and "sure-fire" in interest, were secured from the school library. The titles may be examined in the accompanying list. These books constituted the class "library," and the entire term was spent in reading and discussing the collection. Mondays, Wednesdays, and Fridays were library days—days of free, silent reading. Students browsed through the books, read them, and took them home if they desired. Tuesdays and Thursdays were devoted to book discussions, voting for favorite stories, and listening to selected passages read aloud by the teacher. The teacher, of course, was active in helping students find books of special interest, as revealed by their hobbies, vocational plans, and previous reading. An average of twelve books was read by each student in the reading class in the course of the term.

THE CONTROL CLASS. The third class—the control factor in the experiment—was a normal English class, using the *Odyssey* and *Twelve One-Act Plays* as textbooks. Much classroom time was given over to discussions on topics of literary and current interest, dramatization, and composition. There was no direct teaching of reading skills. Outside reading received moderate emphasis through oral book reports at regular intervals. An average of five books was read in the control class.

RESULTS. Form A of the Nelson-Denny Reading Tests, Vocabulary and Paragraph, was given to each class at the beginning of the experimental term, and Form B was administered at the close. In order to achieve three equated groups, the scores of only eighteen students, matched individually for age and IQ (but not, unfortunately, for sex), were extracted from each class for use in the computations. Individual scores in each group are tabulated in the accompanying tables. Class progress, measured by the average difference between initial test scores and final test scores, is summarized in the following table (a score unit is equivalent to two months on the Nelson-Denny grade level norms):

	Average I.Q.	*Average Number Books Read*	*Progress in Vocabulary*	*Progress in Paragraph Comprehension*	*Total Progress in Reading Ability*
Reading Class	93.16	12	4.88	4.66	9.33
Drill Class	94.16	1	2.11	4.88	8.28
Control Class	99.11	5	7.94	—1.00	6.88

IMPLICATIONS. The writer feels that the experiment should be repeated—with larger, more closely equated groups, over a longer interval of time. The following conclusions, therefore, while considered valid implications of the present findings, are offered only tentatively:

1. *Extensive reading is more effective than intensive drill in improving vocabulary.* The reading class, despite the complete neglect of word study, made more than twice the progress in vocabulary than the drill class.

2. The extraordinary leap in word comprehension by the control group would seem to indicate that *vocabulary growth, while appreciably dependent on quantity of reading, is even more intimately correlated with innate learning ability.* Undoubtedly, the linguistic contributions of radio, movies, magazines, and friends enrich the brighter child's vocabulary more than any conveniently measured classroom influences.

3. *Vocabulary improvement alone—from whatever source—does not result in better paragraph comprehension.* Despite a better initial vocabulary and much greater vocabulary progress, the control group was far behind both the reading and drill classes in learning how to extract *meaning* from the printed page.

4. The apparent inconsistency in the performance of the control group—excellent vocabulary growth, but very poor reading progress—confirms the belief that *the individual word is not a significant factor in measuring the reading level of a passage.* Reading is a complex, dynamic activity, where sentence structure and the flow of thought through the paragraphs play a much more important role. The word is but a negligible hurdle in the larger design of a book

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and scarcely checks the momentum of an eager reader's comprehension. Clearly indicated is a re-examination of classification techniques where, as in the Lorge formula, grade levels are assigned to books on the basis of counting the difficult words.

5. *Paragraph comprehension can be greatly improved through planned teaching and planned materials.* Since the drill group, reading an average of only one book during the term, was also far ahead of the control group, it does not seem that the superiority of the reading class can be attributed wholly to the great number of books read. The gain shown by the reading class seems to be a result, not only of reading more than twice as many books as the control group, but also of reading books that were more appropriate and meaningful to them. Very little reading growth, apparently, can be expected from a student's unguided reading of books, many of them probably beyond his intellectual capacity. Indeed, such reading may very well confirm him in his superficial, sloppy reading habits, despite occasional pleasure experienced from some of the exciting passages.

6. *Reading ability—as indicated by paragraph comprehension—can be improved with equal effectiveness through either intensive drill in reading techniques or extensive reading of suitably-selected materials.*

INDIVIDUAL DATA FOR DRILL GROUP

Student	IQ	Books Read	Vocabulary A	Vocabulary B	Paragraph A	Paragraph B	Totals A	Totals B	Improvement Voc	Improvement Par	Improvement Total
1. ___	92	1	7	12	16	24	23	36	5	8	13
2. ___	76	0	9	15	20	20	29	35	6	0	6
3. ___	107	4	9	27	18	26	27	53	18	8	26
4. ___	98	0	9	3	22	16	31	19	—6	—6	—12
5. ___	79	0	9	9	12	16	21	25	0	4	4
6. ___	109	2	12	16	12	28	24	44	4	16	20
7. ___	91	0	4	7	10	20	14	27	3	10	13
8. ___	95	1	8	13	10	30	18	43	5	20	25
9. ___	72	1	9	11	14	14	23	25	2	0	2
10. ___	93	1	16	21	14	20	30	41	5	6	11
11. ___	116	1	18	14	28	26	46	40	—4	—2	—6
12. ___	94	0	24	19	14	12	38	21	—15	—2	—17
13. ___	93	0	6	12	16	12	22	24	6	—4	2
14. ___	110	3	5	16	16	34	21	50	11	18	29
15. ___	90	1	21	17	18	20	39	37	—4	2	—2
16. ___	94	1	9	12	18	22	27	34	3	4	7
17. ___	83	0	11	9	12	14	23	23	—2	2	0
18. ___	103	0	15	16	14	18	29	34	1	4	5

INDIVIDUAL DATA FOR READING GROUP

Student	IQ	Books Read	Vocabulary A	Vocabulary B	Paragraph A	Paragraph B	Totals A	Totals B	Improvement Voc	Improvement Par	Improvement Total
1. ___	92	11	9	14	16	18	25	32	5	2	7
2. ___	75	14	11	11	18	18	29	29	0	0	0
3. ___	108	8	8	10	16	16	24	26	2	0	2
4. ___	98	19	7	14	8	24	15	38	7	16	23
5. ___	81	7	7	7	24	12	31	19	0	—12	—12
6. ___	111	14	21	26	34	50	55	76	5	16	21
7. ___	88	8	11	18	10	24	21	42	7	14	21
8. ___	89	10	12	16	14	14	26	30	4	0	4
9. ___	73	8	5	13	14	20	19	33	8	6	14
10. ___	89	7	7	18	20	18	27	36	11	—2	9
11. ___	116	28	12	20	30	28	42	48	8	—2	6
12. ___	92	11	10	18	28	22	38	40	8	—6	2
13. ___	99	12	13	17	16	28	29	45	4	12	16
14. ___	105	20	17	20	14	32	31	52	3	18	21
15. ___	86	11	4	12	16	24	20	36	8	8	16
16. ___	90	11	8	6	12	20	20	26	—2	8	6
17. ___	83	11	5	14	16	18	21	32	9	2	11
18. ___	101	8	13	14	22	26	35	40	1	4	5

INDIVIDUAL DATA FOR CONTROL GROUP

Student	IQ	Books Read	Vocabulary A	Vocabulary B	Paragraph A	Paragraph B	Totals A	Totals B	Progress Voc	Progress Par	Progress Total
1. ___	94	5	8	23	22	24	30	47	15	2	17
2. ___	78	2	6	14	10	12	16	26	8	2	10
3. ___	105	8	5	6	28	22	33	28	1	—6	—5
4. ___	97	8	6	12	16	20	22	32	6	4	10
5. ___	84	3	9	13	26	14	35	27	4	—12	—8
6. ___	107	6	14	25	14	8	28	33	11	—6	5
7. ___	89	14	23	37	36	50	59	87	14	14	28
8. ___	97	6	7	13	24	20	31	33	6	—4	2
9. ___	94	4	12	25	18	26	30	51	13	8	21
10. ___	96	1	5	14	16	14	21	28	9	—2	7
11. ___	116	4	12	21	34	28	46	49	9	—6	3
12. ___	99	1	3	13	20	16	23	29	10	—4	6
13. ___	102	5	13	24	36	26	49	50	11	—10	1
14. ___	112	5	9	21	28	28	37	49	12	0	12
15. ___	105	4	16	19	26	32	42	51	3	6	9
16. ___	102	7	19	24	22	30	41	54	5	8	13
17. ___	100	4	22	27	20	16	42	43	5	—4	1
18. ___	107	4	12	12	28	20	40	32	0	—8	—8

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BOOKS USED BY READING CLASS

Alcott	Little Women
	Little Men
	Old Fashioned Girl
	Eight Cousins
Aldrich	Lantern in Her Hand
Altsheler	Horsemen of the Plains
Black	Manners for Moderns
Blackmore	Lorna Doone
Bok	Dutch Boy Fifty Years After
Boylston	Sue Barton, Student Nurse
Brink	Caddie Woodlawn
Buck	Bring 'em Back Alive
Buckingham	Too Many Bears
	Attack
Bugbee	Peggy Covers the News
Burnett	Secret Garden
Compton	Open Road
Defoe	Robinson Crusoe
Dodge	Hans Brinker and the Silver Skates
Doyle	Adventures of Sherlock Holmes
Dumas	Count of Monte Cristo
Ferber	Cimarron
Fisher	Understood Betsy
Gollomb	That Year at Lincoln High
Grey	Short-stop
Haggard	King Solomon's Mines
Halliburton	Royal Road to Romance
Haskell	Katrinka
Hill	In Little America with Byrd
Hough	Covered Wagon
Jackson	Ramona
James	Smoky
	Young Cowboy
	Lone Cowboy
	Sun Up
Kipling	Captains Courageous
	Jungle Book
Lane	Let the Hurricane Roar
Lewis	Young Fu of the Upper Yangtze
Lindbergh	We
	North to the Orient
Lofting	Story of Dr. Doolittle
London	Call of the Wild
	Sea Wolf
	White Fang
Malot	Nobody's Boy

Meader	T-Model Tommy
Meigs	Invincible Louisa
Melville	Moby Dick
Mirrieless	Twenty-two Short Stories of America
Montgomery	Anne of Green Gables
O'Brien	Silver Chief
	Valiant
Pease	Jinx Ship
	Secret Cargo
	Ship Without a Crew
	Wind in the Rigging
Pyle	Men of Iron
	Some Merry Adventures of Robin Hood
Rice	Mrs. Wiggs of the Cabbage Patch
Sabatini	Captain Blood
Salten	Bambi
Sewell	Black Beauty
Singmaster	You Make Your Own Luck
Spyri	Heidi
Stevenson	Treasure Island
	Kidnapped
Tarkington	Seventeen
	Penrod
	Alice Adams
	Penrod and Sam
Terhune	Lad, a Dog
Twain	Adventures of Tom Sawyer
	Adventures of Huckleberry Finn
	Prince and the Pauper
Webster	Daddy Long Legs
White	Daniel Boone
Wiggin	Rebecca of Sunnybrook Farm
Williams	New Narratives
	Mystery and the Detective
Wister	Virginian

An Experiment on the Improvement of Report Cards*

This is the story of an experiment conducted by the faculty of the annexes of Woodrow Wilson Vocational High School, Jamaica, New York City.

* The Faculty of Woodrow Wilson Vocational High School Annexes.

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At one of our monthly conferences the problem of report cards was brought before the faculty. A teacher put to us the question whether it would be better to have "letter" (ABCDF) grades or "per cent" grades; i.e. whether either would convey more information, stimulate performance to a greater extent and be more acceptable to pupils, parents and teachers. Another question which arose was whether it was better to have a single, "composite" citizenship grade (derived by averaging the marks assigned by individual teachers) or the actual "individual" citizenship ratings on the report cards along with the usual individual achievement ratings. A third question referred to frequency: how often should report cards be issued?

HISTORY. A search of educational literature back to 1900 revealed that hundreds of descriptive papers had been published concerning the problem of reporting to the home, but no objective experimental work could be found to support any of the practices in terms of demonstrable educational values. The trend was apparently toward fewer report cards, with most citations in favor of either three or five cards per semester; toward less competitive marking systems, the "letter" system being regarded as less competitive than the "per cent" system; and toward greater specificity in rating, individual subject ratings being more specific than composite or averaged subject ratings. Many other trends and practices were described in the literature, but they did not seem to be as fundamental to any philosophy of home reporting.

AN EXPERIMENT. Consideration of the needs of this school, and observation of the ideas presented in the massive literature, led to the setting up of an experiment by which the faculty could compare two frequencies of issuance (three and five per semester), two degrees of specificity in citizenship rating (C = composite mark, and I = individual marks), and two degrees of competitive grading (P = per cent marks, L = letter marks = ABCDF). In order to assay the effect of the combinations of these experimental variation, eight equivalent groups of students were required: 3CP, 3CL, 3IP, 3IL, 5CP, 5CL, 5IP and 5IL. For example, Group 5IP would have to have the following type of report card: five reports per semester, an individual citizenship rating by each teacher and "per cent" marks for both achievement and citizenship. The other

symbols may be read similarly, and it will be seen that all possible combinations are represented.

EXTRANEOUS FACTORS. In setting up equivalent groups for testing these eight reports cards, we had to consider many extraneous factors:

(a) No two classes are comparable, since they are homogeneous by trade rather than by ability.
(b) Teachers mark differently and affect their classes differently.
(c) Physical conditions are different in the various shops and classrooms.
(d) There are many other sources of differences between individuals and classes.

In order to equalize these extraneous factors, each of seventeen home rooms was divided into eight sub-groups of approximately equal size, three to five pupils in each sub-group. Each sub-group was assigned one of the eight cards, so that all eight cards were represented in each classroom. This provided eight large groups of about 56 pupils in each group, where each group was composed of seventeen sub-groups. It will be noted that because of this method of forming the experimental groups, differences due to different trades, teachers, physical conditions, etc., were equalized.

FIRST RATINGS. Four weeks after the beginning of the semester (1) achievement ratings, (2) citizenship ratings and (3) a record of attendance were entered on "term sheets" for each pupil. At this time the various marks and ratings were entered upon the eight report cards and issued to the pupils, and it was explained that the different report cards were experimental. The data were analyzed statistically and confirmed the fact that the groups were actually equivalent in these three respects at the end of the first marking period (after four weeks).

OTHER RATINGS. Marks and attendance records were also entered upon the "term sheets" at the end of the seventh, tenth, fifteenth and twentieth weeks, i.e., the second third, fourth and last marking periods. This made five sets of records for each student. It should be emphasized that only half the students, those in Groups 5CP, 5CL, 5IP and 5IL, actually received these records on report cards at the second and fourth marking periods. All these data were subjected to statistical analysis, including correlations, partial correlations, regressions, factorial analyses of variance, critcial ratio measurements, Bartlett's test for homogeneity and the chi-square test.

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DIVERGENCES. The largest divergence appeared between the groups which had three report cards per semester (call this "Section 3") and the groups which had five report cards (call this "Section 5"). The change appeared as early as the second marking period, at which time Section 5 received cards but Section 3 did not. At the third marking period, which corresponded to the mid-term, all groups expected and received report cards and the discrepancy between the two sections was reduced. At the fourth marking period, the divergence was increased again; and at the end of the term, although the difference was somewhat smaller, the net result was greatly in favor of the groups which had received five report cards.

NEED FOR FREQUENT REPORTS. At the end of the semester, Section 5 showed only half as many failures in achievement (15%, 8%) and two-thirds as many in citizenship (15%, 9.5%) as Section 3. The absences per pupil in Section 5 were 9.3, as contrasted with 11.2 in Section 3. *This represents a saving in "state aid" of about $1700 per year per thousand pupils when five reports are issued.*

A questionnaire sent to parents showed that they preferred the more frequent report cards.

The second largest effect was found in the use of "individual" citizenship ratings (call these groups "Section I") in place of the usual "composite" (call these groups "Section C"). At the end of the semester, the "individual" groups had two-thirds as many failures in achievement (13%, 9%) and three-fourths as many failures in citizenship (14%, 11%) as Section C. The number of absences per pupil in Section I was 9.9; in Section C it was 10.6. *This represents a saving in "state aid" of about $650 per year per thousand pupils when individual citizenship ratings are assigned.*

SPECIFIC RATINGS. Questionnaire results showed that the more specific "individual" citizenship marks were preferred by teachers and by the parents of the pupils in Section I, i.e., the only parents who had experienced this method of rating.

There was no important reliable difference between the groups with the more competitive "per cent" marks and the groups with the less competitive "letter" marks. Parents, pupils and teachers indicated preference for the "per cent" system.

There was, however, an important "pattern" or "Gestalt" effect in favor of the combination of (a) five report cards per semester and (b) individual citizenship marks. This was over and above the advantage accruing from each variation separately.

PRESENT DEFICIENCIES. As a result of this experiment, it became apparent to our faculty that the conventional New York City report card, which is of type 3CP, is far from the most efficient. It was, as a matter of fact, the worst of the eight tested. The best two were 5IP and 5IL, with not much to choose between them. Thus it may be concluded that the 5I type, i.e. five report cards per semester and "individual" citizenship ratings for each subject, is the best among the types studied.

SUMMARY. The improvement to be expected from a change to this recommended type of report card may be seen from the following list of differences between the conventional (3CP) and the recommended (5I) groups:

A. The recommended card group had only one-third as many failures in achievement, and average (mean) achievement was about 3% higher.

B. It had about one-half as many failures in citizenship, and average (mean) citizenship was about 2% higher.

C. The difference in attendance record was about 2.8 absences per pupil per semester, accounting for a saving in "state aid" of about $2500 per year per thousand pupils.

Detailed description of the background of this study, the school and its population, the data and their statistical analysis, a psychological interpretation of the results, a complete set of conclusions, and a selected bibliography, may be found in the doctoral dissertation, *The Effect of Three Variations in Home Report Procedure on Student Achievement, Citizenship and Attendance,* pp. 254 + XIX, 1945, by Irving Allen Dodes, a member of this faculty. Administrators who desire a copy of this dissertation may apply to Mr. Daniel B. Joseph, Principal, Woodrow Wilson Vocational High School, Jamaica, New York City. There is a copy for reference purposes in the library of the Graduate School of Education and in the library of the Department of Statistics at New York University.

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A Unit of Work on Guidance in the Junior High School

NATHAN JACOBSON
James Fenimore Cooper Junior High School

Our school is a modern, well-equipped building in the heart of a slum area in Harlem. The boys who participated in this unit of work were Negro boys. Realizing the numerous problems confronting boys of a minority group in an underprivileged neighborhood, we felt that a unit which would reveal to them some aspects of the work-world, show them the importance of self-analysis in improving personality, and that would help them choose the proper high school, would go far towards relieving some of the tensions under which they usually plan for their future.

In addition, since a vocation-guidance counselor was in the school, we were able to gain a great deal of assistance.

DESCRIPTION OF THE CLASS. The class had a register of thirty-five pupils, whose chronological age ranged from 13 years 6 months to 16 years, and whose I.Q. ranged from 80 to 129. The grade was 9A.

Many children came from homes where family guidance is the exception rather than the rule. In a number of cases both parents work and do not have a chance to check adequately on their children. Frequently home conditions are not conducive to high morals in the child.

Their educational background included a core curriculum experience in the 8B. They had developed a unit of work on Latin-American life and had learned the techniques of the new program.

OBJECTIVES. Our goal was to obtain information and to develop worthwhile attitudes. We set ourselves the following objectives:

1. To help the boys plan intelligently for their life work
2. To help them develop the ability to think critically about the value of various professions
3. To guide the boys in their choice of the appropriate high school
4. To give the boys insight into the characteristics essential for a successful worker
5. To develop an appreciation of the worth and interdependence of many lines of work
6. To guide the boys in the development of a wholesome personality and in a realization of the importance of a wholesome personality

7. To guide the boys in the making of an intelligent analysis of one's self
8. To develop the boys as individuals and as members of a social group

APPROACH TO THE UNIT. Two weeks before the new term, the teacher and the supervisor visited the class which had been doing a unit on Latin-America to try to make the transition from that unit to the one on guidance. This was done by recalling to them the visit of Ambassador Boal to their Pan-America Exhibit. He had asked several boys what they wanted to be. Also, the film *Amazon Awakens* had been viewed by the boys, and possibilities for jobs shown in the film discussed.

One week later, the discussion was continued and although only about a third of the class joined in, it seemed that this third would carry the unit through. They showed a definite interest in a study of vocations, and we proceeded to think about the unit and to develop a broad outline of the work.

The Vocational Guidance Counselor was interviewed. She was most helpful in establishing the philosophy behind the unit: namely, that children were to be encouraged to aim for any vocation they wished disregarding the factor of discrimination. They were to have a secondary goal, however, to fall back upon. In addition, many books, pamphlets, magazines and contacts were obtained through the counselor that helped immeasurably to enrich the course.

The school librarian permitted us to use about 40 books from the school library in our classroom. These stimulated interest in the topic.

DEVELOPMENT OF UNIT. The plan evolved by class and teacher divided the term roughly into three parts. These were:

1. A study of occupations—a study of ways of earning a living by visiting factories, seeing films, listening to speakers
2. A study of personality, self analysis, and the improvement of traits, with a view toward later success
3. A study of New York City high schools

The first part of the unit took about eight weeks. During that time the boys studied and reported on 25 occupations answering such questions as:

1. What is the importance of the work?
2. What are the conditions under which the work is carried out?
3. What is the effect of the work on the worker?
4. What are the opportunities for advancement?

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5. What preparation is required?
6. What personal qualifications are needed?
7. What is the pay?
8. What are the advantages and the disadvantages?

To obtain answers to these questions, we interviewed workers, read books, consulted pamphlets and heard speakers. In addition to the reports, boys cut illustrations for them from magazines and drew original pictures. One of the interesting activities was the development of a chart showing nine basic work groups in the U. S. Another was the creation of an original mural, *The Workers of the U.S.A.* A third activity resulted in the development of a chart of the occupations studied and the answers to the eight questions listed above. Another interesting feature was a debate between two groups of boys on the topic, *Trades vs. Professions.*

The second part of the unit was started with the question, "You've shown an interest in a life-work. Do you have the traits needed for success in that field?" The boys offered traits that they wanted to study (list attached). They formed committees for the purpose of illuminating these traits by means of illustrations heard on the radio, read in books and newspapers, and seen in motion pictures. Among the activities resulting from the second part of the unit were original drawings to accompany the reports, a chart showing the chosen occupations and the personality traits essential for each, and an original class play.

During the third part of the unit, we visited Benjamin Franklin High School, The Central High School of Needle Trades, and Midwood High School in Brooklyn. We discussed courses: academic, general, commercial, and vocational, and their connection with our first unit. Through these visits the boys gained a clearer idea of the offerings of our city's schools.

The following time allotment was assigned in the program. The unit had the use of 14 periods weekly. These were English (5), art (4), visual instruction (1), library (1), hygiene (1), home room (1), and guidance (1). The rest of the program was made up of Spanish (5), algebra (5), science (5), music (1), typing (2), health education (2), assembly (1). These subjects were taken with other teachers.

TECHNIQUES USED IN THE UNIT. Some of the techniques used to bring about desirable learnings follow.

A. Group Study

Boys formed committees for the purpose of seeking information on both occupations and personality. The groups varied in size and activity. Some consulted libraries, read books, interviewed people, drew illustrations and defended viewpoints with enthusiasm. Everyone presented oral or written reports on the subject of his choice.

B. Visiting Speakers

The class heard four or five teacher-representatives of high schools speak about their respective schools, the courses they gave, and their requirements. Two representatives of the U. S. Employment Service spoke to the class about the work of their agency and how it functioned. They also stressed the importance of preparation. The school psychologist discussed personality and its development with the class.

C. Visting Group

A class of children from Midwood High School, studying the same unit, visited us and we visited them. From this interchange much benefit was derived. The children from Midwood learned an important lesson on racial understanding and the boys of 9A-2 gained new ideas from the experiences of the children of Midwood.

D. Visiting High Schools

By actually going to two types of high schools (two academic and two vocational) the boys learned the essential differences between them. The questions they asked, the things they saw, helped make concrete for them certain concepts, such as course requirements, added responsibility, and the more mature atmosphere of high school.

E. Films

Our unit was aided considerably by the use of vocational-guidance films. Through the cooperation of our visual instruction teacher, and the guidance counselor we showed nine films. The films were usually introduced by boys who had read the summaries that came with the film. After the film had been seen, the boys participated in a discussion.

F. Supplementary Reading

The boys made extensive use of reference books both in the class and in the public library. Usually the teacher informed the librarian a week ahead of problems the boys were seeking to solve and she would select books for their use. In their reports, boys were expected to give credit for the source of their information.

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G. Testing Program

An attempt was made, with the help of an assistant from the guidance office, to obtain an idea of each boy's interests and abilities by giving a battery of three tests. These were *The California Test of Mental Maturity, The Interest Inventory of Garrettson and Symonds, and the McQuarrie Test of Mechanical Ability.*

Because of lack of time only about half the boys were followed up and given the results of the tests in simplified form. The new teacher of the group has been informed of these test results and will make use of them this term.

CULMINATION. The first phase of the unit was brought to a close by the creation of a summary chart showing the occupations studied and the facts found out about them. A committee also visited another class to give them the information we had acquired. Another committee planned and executed a mural, later exhibited in the guidance office, on the *Workers in the U.S.A.*, based on information gained during the course of the unit.

The phase ended with a summary chart listing the occupations and the personality traits required by each. One committee wrote a play, and rehearsed it for presentation to the school. It was called *Harry Learns a Lesson* and stressed the importance of personality traits.

EVALUATION OF UNIT. It is extremely difficult to measure the intangibles with which we deal. Changes in personality are rarely so apparent as to be measured by everyday observation. In many cases, however, there were changes which may have been the result of participation in the unit of work on the whole. The class came closer to the realization that intelligent planning was a requisite to successful living. They had given serious consideration to the value of various professions in their many reports. In addition, the debate on the question of *Trades vs. Professions* led to much valuable discussion which emphasized the worth and interdependence of both types of life-work. Most of the class had a very good idea of the high schools which they wanted to attend after we had done the phase of the unit on both high schools. The stress on personality and the development of a self-rating scale aided the boys in realizing that a wholesome personality was a vital factor in their success. The comparison of the results of their self-analysis with the teacher's

rating of their personalities gave them an insight into the possibilities of improvement.

Finally, the constant emphasis on working as a member of a group to the best of one's ability seemed to bear fruit in the cooperative nature of the many activities described above.

In spite of all the difficulties of programming and other factors inherent in the administration of the junior high school, the values derived from the unit made the effort expended by teacher and supervisors worth-while. At the end of the unit the boys had had great opportunity to become better individuals and better members of society than they would have had in the "teacher-pupil recitation" type of classroom.

ADDENDA. Many of the problems that arose were resolved through the experience and help of Mrs. Bleich. Without her constant willingness to discuss problems and without her enthusiasm for this type of approach, the results would have been far less rewarding than they were.

The content of the course was greatly enriched through the desire of Mrs. Penn, the guidance counselor, to lend materials, contact speakers, and arrange for our visits to the high schools. We profited tremendously from her experience in the field of guidance.

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Find Yourself—Cohen. Dodd Mead & Co.

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Our Foreign Born Citizens—Beard. Crowell.
Microbe Hunters—DeKruif. Harcourt, Brace & Co.
Hunger Fighters—DeKruif. Harcourt, Brace & Co.

AN ANALYSIS OF MY PERSONALITY TRAITS

Below are listed *20* items. Rate yourself on each of these traits. Number 1 represents the highest degree and number 5 the lowest. For example, if you possess less than average perseverance you might rate yourself 4; if you possess it to a high degree you would rate yourself 1. Place a check in the proper column.

Traits	1	2	3	4	5
Lawfulness					
Honesty					
Self-Sacrifice					
Courage					
Self-Assurance					
Initiative					
Perseverance					
Dependability					
Self-Control					
Dignity					
Friendliness					
Sense of Humor					
Neatness					
Cheerfulness					
Cooperation					
Competence					
Sportsmanship					
Patience					
Leadership					
Health					

FILMS SEEN

Planning Your Lifework
The Welder
The Sheet Metal Worker
The Electrician
The Journalist
The Draftsman
Youth Looks Ahead
What About a Job
The Skilled Mechanic

All these were obtained through the Vocational Guidance Department, courtesy of Mrs. Penn, and Mr. Weintraub, Visual-Instruction Teacher.

An Integrated Program of Instructor Training and Guidance

LT. SAMUEL POLATNICK*

While the consequences of instructional failure indicated in such an army training dictum as "Got to be damned sure no boy's ghost will every say 'if your training program had only done its job' " do not seem equally immediate and forboding to the civilian instructor, yet his responsibility for successful instruction is equally high. Our war experience has demonstrated, beyond question, the close relationship between the strength of our country and the educational background of the civilian-soldier.

The fact that much military time had to be given to filling in educational gaps for some men, repeating training for others, and providing instruction in "why we fight" and the background of the war for all soldiers shows that perhaps we high school teachers haven't done our best possible job yet. Our own constant search for improvement of instructional efficiency indicates that we do appreciate our responsibilities in the preparation of better citizens.

GIVE-AND-TAKE. Just as military training acquired much from the sound principles of civilian pedagogical practice, so can civilian educators, in turn, derive value from an analysis of military procedures. The Instructor Training and Guidance Program conducted by the Training Methods Branch**, Training Division, Army Service Forces Training Center (Ordnance) APG, Maryland, contains much that justifies our examination.

PURPOSES. The mission of the Army Service Forces Training Center (Ordnance) is to train enlisted men for Ordnance Units as clerks, automotive mechanics, instrument repairmen, artillery and small arms mechanics, welders, painters, carpenters, leather and canvas workers, motor vehicle operators, machinists, or in other

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skills allied to performing the storage, supply, repair and maintenance of weapons, automotive equipment, and ammunition. However, such training necessitated as a prequisite, the selection and training of a constantly changing instructor-personnel. Thus the Training Center was confronted with the interrelated problems of finding men who had a teaching potential, preparing them to do such a job, checking their performance and guiding their work; all in the interests of constantly upgrading instructional efficiency.

BASIC COURSES. Since most men available as instructors were men with technical proficiency but lacking pedagogical background, the first element developed in the Training Methods Branch program was a series of basic courses in how to teach. Because of the pressure of time, these courses averaged about 36 hours in length and were usually conducted within a one-week period. These basic courses included one designed for leadership trainees (men training to become noncommissioned officers, hence instructors), one designed for men already noncommissioned officers performing instructional duties but who had never had such training and one for commissioned officers.

With specific adjustments to the particular needs of the group being trained, these courses contained provision for theoretical and practical instruction. Theoretical instruction covered such matters as principles of learning, methods and steps in teaching, effective speech, questioning techniques, lesson planning, use of training aids, preparation and evaluation of tests, and the elimination of learner difficulties. Most of this instruction was scheduled for the morning sessions. Afternoons and the last day of the course were devoted to practice lessons taught by trainees. These progressed from brief introductory talks by men on their own lives and experiences, through five-minute lessons on any subject and finally worked up to fifteen-minute lessons on military or technical subject matter. Each of these lessons was followed by a critique conducted by the Training Methods Branch instructor and the other students in the class. These critiques, conducted in a spirit of constructive criticism, made trainees immediately aware of the relationship between theory and practice and provided all the learning benefits in actually doing what was being taught. At the conclusion of each course, unsigned suggestions were solicited, so that each course would be responsive to trainee needs.

FOLLOW-UP. Since it was realized that one week's training could not make a teacher, some system of effective follow-up was obviously necessary. The techniques developed are of particular interest. These involvd two procedures: one, refresher course; the other, a program of instructor guidance.

Refresher courses scheduled for meetings six to nine months after the personnel concerned had completed a basic course, sooner if so recommended by a supervisory authority, ran from nineteen to thirty-six hours and were completed within three to six days. These courses served to refresh instructors in the basic fundamentals and to bring them up to date in recent training developments. Provision here, too, was made for both theory and practice. However, certain additional values must be noted. The presence in one class of experienced instructors from several different training organizations meant the opportunity for highly beneficial interchange of problems and solutions found in the many military and technical organizations of the Center. This occasion to benefit from the experiences of others was extended by tours to various technical training organizations scheduled as a regular part of the refresher courses.

Because of the size of many technical training organizations, some of their noncommissioned and officer personnel were delegated supervisory responsibilities. Since, in addition to administrative work, this involved some supervision of instruction, the Training Methods Branch conducted a special course for enlisted instructor-supervisors. Here, both principles and practice of instruction and supervision were stressed. Officers received guidance in supervision in both their basic and refresher courses.

To round out the whole program, the Training Methods Branch began the "Instructor Guidance" program. Instructors of the Branch, known as Guidance Counselors while performing this work, visited the training organizations and observed instruction.

OBSERVING INSTRUCTION. The crux of this program lay in the spirit and purpose of this observation. These Training Methods men came *not* as supervisors and were *not* there to rate instruction. They came as experts in educational methods to assist already qualified instructors to improve the quality of their instruction to the maximum and to give counsel in any educational problems confronting the men teaching or faced by the training organization.

Thus, they would observe an instructor from an hour to any

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length of time necessary to form an adequate judgment. Immediately after observation, they would hold informal conferences with the instructors observed, commend strengths, point out weaknesses and make suggestions for improvement. After observing in a training organization for a number of weeks or sooner if the occasion warranted, the guidance counselors would discuss general observation with enlisted instructor-supervisors, officers or heads of the training organizations. Although when the program began some instructors regarded it with suspicion, its present prestige is reflected in the fact that training organizations and individual instructors come to the guidance counselors for suggestions for solving teaching problems; organizations invite Training Methods Branch staff members to observe and assist new instructors, and all execute recommendations promptly. While written reports are submitted on individual instructors and the training organizations as a whole, these are discussed with those concerned before the reports are submitted to all supervisory organizations affected. Thus, the reports serve as records against which further progress can be measured when guidance counselors return for further visits at later periods. They may also be used by instructors to guide self improvement and by the organizations to direct assistance. Often such reports embody suggestions made by the instructors themselves (for example, proposals for new teaching aids), and hence may acquaint administrative personnel with instructional facts they were too otherwise occupied with to notice.

All this, then, becomes an integrated procedure for constantly improving the quality of instruction. Basic courses, refresher courses, and instructor-guidance represent levels of assistance to the individual instructor to help him do a better job tomorrow than he did today.

LESSONS FOR THE SCHOOLS. While some of these elements of instructor guidance are applied in our schools, some may yet be adopted or modified for adoption. This is particularly true since many teachers tend to concentrate on improving their grasp of subject matter rather than on their command of pedagogical technique. Thus several derived proposals suggest themselves.

Occasional meetings of class-size groups of teachers, where individuals rotated as instructors and class members, would serve to keep teachers on their pedagogical toes, make them more conscious

of strengths and weaknesses and make possible the benefits of exchange of valuable experience. These could be scheduled periodically during free periods or at other convenient times.

Schools where chairmen and principals are saddled with administrative assignments might well employ a few specially qualified faculty members as educational counselors delegated the responsibility of keeping pace with the latest and best pedagogical procedures and making these available to the remainder of the staff by observing their work and making recommendations. This assistance should not be a grading system or its whole value would disappear. Teachers must regard it as an impartial service designed to assist them in doing an even better job.

Through such close and intimate observation of instruction, skilled observers may find suggestions for promoting instructional efficiency throughout an entire school. Thus, generally insufficient and improper use of visual aids may lead to the establishment of one central training-aid agency to make, procure, schedule and distribute such aids. Poor use of English in classes where "English" is not the subject matter may lead to recommendations for promoting good usage throughout the school, etc.

There is room too for observation of teachers by other teachers both in and out of their own subject matter departments. No one of us has the breadth of vision of all of us combined. We can learn from others and we can certainly stimulate each other to even better achievement.

In any event, there is room for study and application of many principles and practices described in the foregoing pages.

An Auditorium Program of Visual Instruction

CLARENCE J. STOLPER, Olinville Junior High School

High Points has been a valuable source of information on the organization, methods, materials, equipment, sources, and other phases of visual-aids programs in the public schools. Much that has been said is important enough to bear repeating, but we will try to limit ourselves here to the part of the program used at our school which may suggest an additional approach in the use of visual instruction.

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In 1940, about two years after the opening of our school, our visual-aids program was organized along lines suggested by a study of the best procedures in other schools and by our own experience. Our projection equipment at that time consisted of two slide projectors, a 16 mm. silent film projector, and a 35 mm. sound film projector.

DIFFICULTIES MET. The program presented difficulties and had certain limitations which had to be overcome before it functioned satisfactorily. There were few sources of free films and slides. These were heavily overburdened by the demand, and requests had to be made months in advance of the actual showing. Many of the films and slides were outdated and in poor condition. Our program had to be conducted on a limited budget and we were therefore restricted in our use of rental films. Finally, despite all attempts through regular school bulletins and special circulars, to stress the advantages of using visual aids in supplementing and improving classroom instruction, and despite the services of a trained squad who delivered and operated the equipment, only a limited number of teachers made use of the visual aids.

This state of affairs in our visual-aids program caused us to take a series of steps which finally led to our current program. This has met with marked success and has gained the praise of pupils, teachers, and supervisors alike.

REORGANIZATION. We set out to add to our projection equipment. We bought a 16 mm. sound projector, a filmroll projector, and an opaque projector. The addition of this equipment opened up wide sources of materials heretofore closed to us. However, the addition of equipment and the opening of new sources did not induce much greater use by the teachers or cause the program to reach many more students. It was necessary to reorganize our procedures in order to achieve the type of program we thought desirable.

It is in this phase of reorganization—evolved through several stages until it became our current program—that we feel we have made some real contributions.

We decided to add an auditorium program to our regular classroom service. With the help of the administration and the departments concerned we scheduled "Visual Instruction Assemblies" for the shops and for social studies. These were in lieu of regular

classroom periods and the work covered was considered part of the regular course of study. We found that each subject presented different problems and met with varying success; hence we will discuss our procedures with each subject separately.

SHOP ASSEMBLIES. The shop assembly was scheduled for one period a week. All shop pupils reported to this assembly and were shown a film dealing with industry, skilled labor, or an industrial process. There was no attempt to deal solely with the types of shops represented in our school but rather to present a broad view of industry, industrial pursuits, and vocational opportunities. We obtained our films from industrial organizations that offered such services. We learned of these from such source catalogues as "1,000 and One" and "Educational Film Catalogue" and also from the use of form requests which we sent to concerns which seemed likely prospects.

A list of the films we presented will give an idea of the program.

Magic Versus Science
A Modern Zeus
The World's Largest Electrical Shop
A Woolen Yarn
The Land of Cotton
Just Around the Corner
Three Women
The World of Paper
The Electric Needle
The Story of White Lead
Modern Industrial Methods
From Mine to Consumer
The Romance of Iron and Steel
The Story of the Tire
What's in a Dress
Wool, From Fleece to Fabric
Tapestries, and How They Are Made
The Etcher's Art
Drypoint—a Demonstration
The Story of My Life by Mr. Shoe
Safeguarding the Speechways
The Backbone of Progress
Arc Welding in Building Erection
New Frontiers
Empires of Steel
Conquest of the Hudson
Making a V-type Engine

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Millions For Safety
Gas Serves New York
Electrifying New York
The Story of the Hacksaw
Oxywelding and Cutting in Construction
Story of the World's Rare Woods and Their Use in Furniture
Cotton, Civilization's Fabric
The Art of Glove Making
The Story of Leather
Manufactured Abrasives
Aluminum: Mine to Metal
Fabrication and Erection of the Bank of Manhattan Building
Automobile Lubrication
When You Can Measure
Meat and Romance
And So We Make an Extension Table
Fashion's Favorite
General Repair
Young America Paints
Where Mileage Begins
The Making of American Homes
Men in Danger
Diesel—the Modern Power
Botany Clothes the Nation
Meat for America
America Builds Ships
Progress on Parade
Modes and Motors
Story Behind the Brush
Weather by Carrier
Anti-Freeze, A Story of Scientific Research

This program of visual-instruction assemblies for the shops was in operation from February, 1940 through January, 1942. The war caused the visual-instruction programs of most commercial organizations to be sharply curtailed and also caused changes in the industrial program in our school. Thus we were compelled to discontinue our shop visual-instruction assemblies. A canvass of the shop teachers showed that the majority of them were of the opinion that the program had been of definite value and that they would like to have it resumed at the next opportunity. A few felt that there might be some doubt as to whether it was valuable enough to justify the loss of a regular shop period.

SOCIAL STUDIES PROGRAM. The unified visual instruction program for the social studies developed in a somewhat different manner and met with such evident success that we feel it makes a real contribution to the curriculum. It was decided to start with only the 6B, 7A, and 7B by programming each of these grades for a visual instruction assembly in place of a regular social studies period. A different film was shown to each assembly, the subjects conforming to the courses of study. The program was conducted as a class lesson and was carried over to the social studies classrooms as part of the regular work. This type of visual instruction period met with the complete approval of the social studies teachers and in September, 1941 it was extended from the elementary classes through the 9B. However, its very success created new difficulties for the program. Preparing six different programs a week necessitated long term planning, training a large staff of boys for the Visual-Instruction Squad, heavy expenditures for rental and service charges, express, carfares, and parcel post expenses.

This is how this new phase of our visual instruction assembly program was organized and continued to the present.

It was decided to select films dealing with current topics. This allowed us to show the same program to each grade and still stay within the limits of the course of study. Limiting the program to the same film for all assemblies gave us additional advantages. We were now required to prepare and pay for the expenses of only one program a week instead of six. A very important advantage was that the current events dealt largely with our war effort during this time and provided us with an excellent visual background of world events when these were of the greatest importance. Also, because of the war, the motion picture industry and the government entered the field of visual instruction to an unprecedented degree. Now that the war is over the indications are that this activity will be continued and even increased.*

TECHNIQUES. A squad of boys is selected and trained to show the films. Four boys are chosen from each grade, school records and teachers' recommendations determining the selection. Parental consent is obtained for the handling of the apparatus and for traveling outside the school building. Once our original squad was chosen

* New York *Post—Screen News and Views* by Irene Thirer (August 18, 1945)

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it was necessary to add and train only four 7A pupils each term to replace the graduating members. Thus a boy had six terms of experience by the time he was graduated. Each group of four boys works as a unit in showing the film to its own assembly. Thus no boys are required to miss any classroom work.

We start preparing our program at least three months prior to the beginning of the new term. The latest bulletins of film distributors are examined and films are selected on the basis of their titles, descriptions, recommendations, previews, and length. Our budget has caused us to limit our selections to free films or to those for which there may be only a small rental or service charge. We apply for bookings and after we receive all our confirmations we put our program into its final form. The list of film titles, running time, and brief descriptions of the films are given to each of the assembly leaders at the beginning of the term. When the film is delivered to the school, it is previewed by the director of the visual instruction program and a synopsis of the film with suggestions for its use is sent to each assembly leader. Some of the assembly leaders frequently have the opportunity to preview the films also.

At the beginning of the period the assembly leader motivates the lesson, and prepares the pupils for intelligent observation of the film. The film is then shown. After the film the pupils participate in a discussion of the most significant points in the film and are permitted to take notes. The discussion may be continued in the regular social studies periods. The notes become part of the regular social studies notebook, and questions on the films are part of the current events discussions and are included in the final examinations.

The cost of these program including rentals, service charges, express and parcel post expenses, carfares and other incidentals runs to about thirty dollars a term.

SOURCES. We have used as our main sources of films the Y.M.C.A. Motion Picture Bureau, the British Information Service, the Canadian Information Service, the Office of War Information, Motion Picture Film Service, Office of War Training Programs, Motion Picture Bureau of the American Red Cross, and other organizations engaged in war work. All of these films were 16 mm. sound.

We have a long list of films which were shown since September, 1942, and we think that listing them here will serve the double pur-

pose of suggesting films for use in other schools and of showing the subject matter included in our school program.

Soldiers of the Sea
Repair, Supply, and Relief
Coffee, the Pride of Colombia
First Line of Defense
What So Proudly We Hail
Building a Bomber
Telephone Arsenal
National Defense Review #1
Building a Tank
National Defense Review #2
Australia Marches with Britain
National Defense Review #3
Cannons on Wings
Safeguarding Military Information
Adeste Fidelis
Men and Ships
Fighter Pilot
R.A.F. Action
A Few Ounces a Day
New Britain
The Price of Freedom
Coal for Victory
Ring of Steel
Victory is our Business
It's Up to Us
The World We Want to Live In
Food for Freedom
Winning Your Wings
Wood for War
Fit to Fight on All Fronts
Keep 'Em Rolling
Western Front
Modern Man O'Warsmen
Democracy in Action
Hidden Hunger
The Land
A Great Railroad at Work
Eyes of the Navy
U. S. News Review #2
The Arms Behind the Army
Henry Browne, Farmer
The Price of Victory
Divide and Conquer
Dover

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Keeping Fit
The World at War
The Thousand Days
The End of the Beginning
The Strong Shall Be Free
Target for Tonight
Silent Village
Before the Raid
Vaagse Raid
Right of Way
Farmers at War
Wings Up
Everybody's War
Jap Zero
Mission Accomplished
Troop Train
U. S. News Review #3
Coast Guard Spars
Mexican Moods
Our Enemy the Japanese
Argentine Soil
Argentine Primer
More Power to You
Men of the Coast Guard
Ever Since Eden
Secret Weapons
Citrus in Nutrition
Brazil at War
Mexico Builds a Democracy
This is Ecuador
New Soldiers are Tough
South of the Border With Disney
Report from Russia
Good Neighbor Family
Housing in Chile
Young Uruguay
Desert Victory
Day of Battle
Sicily—Key to Victory
Reports from a Beachhead
What Makes a Battle
Negro Soldier
Service in a Submarine
Submarines at Sea
Flight Log
Americans All
A Letter From Bataan
Swim and Live

Black Marketing
At His Side
Hand in Hand
Seeing them Through

This completed the program through June, 1945. For the current term we have booked the following films:

Belo Horizonte
Atacama Desert
Kids Must Eat
Magic Bullets
Troop Transport
We Said We'd Come Back
Prices Unlimited
Freedom Comes High
It Can't Last
Lady Marines
Mr. and Mrs. America
Watchtower Over Tomorrow
Peace Builders
The Balanced Way

This program has not detracted from the use of visual aids in the classroom. We are even now planning a program for increasing the use of these aids in classroom teaching. The success of our Visual Instruction Assemblies is assured and we now consider them part of our regular curriculum.

High Points

THE ANTIQUARIAN'S CORNER

It is known to all, even to the schoolboy of whom I wrote in the June issue, that after special attention is given to some word or phrase, one seems to come across that word or phrase very frequently thereafter. Some law of psychology can probably be evoked to explain this occurrence, and there come to mind dimly remembered laws of learning, something about recency and frequency.

In the last few months, I seem to have met "as every schoolboy knows" more times than in all my previous years of reading. My respect for the knowledge of schoolboys and girls has increased: never again shall I reproach a youth for his lack of knowledge since so many impartial judges have deemed him so learned.

Witness the statements by John Morris, an Englishman who went

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to Japan to teach English in 1938 and who spent December, 1941 to June, 1942 as an involuntary guest of the Japanese. He wrote a book* about his experiences which contains a few interesting chapters on education in Japan.

Students wishing to enter high school, which is a college preparatory school more advanced than our high school, had to pass an examination in English. Carlyle and Emerson were favorite authors from whose works passages had to be translated. The students would memorize lists of difficult words which were written on individual cards, English on one side, Japanese on the other.

One day, while strap-hanging in a trolley, Morris saw a student trying to memorize an unusually long English word. He asked the boy to show him the card and Morris learned a new word himself: FLOCCINAUCINIHILIPILIFICATION. On request the boy gave a definition, which was wrong, and then added, contemptuously, it seemed to Morris, that every schoolboy knew it "because it is the longest word in the English language." Well is it for us that the Japanese schoolboy wasted his time on *flocci* and not on the study of atoms!

Our schoolboys and girls would vote for ANTIDISESTABLISHMENTARIANISM, even if it has one letter less, for the other word is not found in our unabridged dictionaries but is found in the *New English Dictionary* (Oxford). Conversely, the *NED* does not have the *anti* word. *Flocci, etc.* is formed from the statement of a rule in the Eton Latin Grammar illustrating a use of the genitive case. *Flocci, nauci, nihili, pili* were cited as examples. They all mean "of little value" like our "rap," "tinker's dam," "straw," and "hang" in idiomatic expressions. Some one added a "fication" to them as a group and a new word was born, meaning "the action of estimating as worthless." Scott and Southey used it.

Willy Ley, writer of popular scientific articles for newspapers, has great respect for the scientific knowledge of the schoolboy. In a discussion of the cataclysmic theory in one of his books,* he explains that "the next step, as every schoolboy now knows, was to clear away Cuvier's artificial obstacles to an orderly and uninterrupted flow of geologic history." The makers of the next Regents examination in biology may test the validity of Ley's assertion as it

* *Traveler from Tokyo* (New York, Sheridan House, 1944)
* *The Lungfish and the Unicorn* (New York, Modern Age Books, 1941)

applies to our schoolboys by including a question on Cuvier's theory in a forthcoming test.

Further on in the same book, Ley is more cautious. In speaking of Haeckel, he says that every schoolboy in Europe knew his formula, "Ontogenesis recapitulates phylogenesis." Perhaps Ley doesn't know our schoolboys so well. He did not have to qualify his statement since the formula is in all the biology texts, sometimes with the word "ontogeny."

Saints and Sinners, a new study of the Pilgrims by George F. Willison, was reviewed on two successive days in the New York *Times.* Each reviewer used the schoolboy's knowledge as a mesauring stick. On August 5, 1945, Esther Forbes wrote, "As every schoolboy knows, about the time Shakespeare was at the height of his fame, a little band of Separatists slipped over to Holland." On August 6, 1945, Orville Prescott elliptically and cryptically remarked, "Yet their (the Separatists') true nature and most of the true facts have been so obscured by an erroneous legend that most of 'what every schoolboy knows' about the Puritans isn't so." The reviewers should get together.

Another variation on the theme is found in the pages of the book section of the *Times.* Mildred Adams, reviewing Gilberto Freyre's *Brazil, an Interpretation,* declared, "However, the author's intention is not to state what ought to be known to every schoolboy, but to examine into what Brazil really is."

In spite of the lukewarm enthusiasm of the last two writers for the knowledge of our schoolboys, I was feeling elated over the varied knowledge imputed to them by other writers until I came across an article by Mortimer J. Adler, iconoclast and spoil-sport. The very title in the January, 1944 *Coronet,* was a shock, What *Every Schoolboy Doesn't Know.* By the time Adler is through with the poor schoolboy, the latter "doesn't know much—either when he enters the kindergarten or when he graduates from college." Another illusion gone, and all our education wasted if we do not follow the Adler method! Alas, alas!

MORRIS ROSENBLUM Samuel J. Tilden High School

A SLIGHT DISSERTATION ON LESSON PLANS

If you wish to create a little excitement among any gathering of teachers, just say two little words—"lesson plans." Few pedagogical

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devices have caused more headaches, more heartaches, more friction between supervisors and teachers.

For instance, there was the supervisor who would insist on seeing the lesson plan after an observation visit. Woe unto the teacher whose plan had no date on it! There was also the chairman, known far and wide for his severity, whose own lesson plans consisted merely of page numbers. An amusing case was the genius who wrote several articles on lesson plans but who was known to boast in private that he had never prepared a real lesson plan in his life. There are a not inconsiderable number of teachers who admit that they never keep lesson plans and who insist that they don't need them.

TIME-SAVERS. I believe in lesson plans because I have found them invaluable. They have simplified my work, saved me a tremendous amount of time and made teaching a lot easier. I hasten to add that I do not prepare them for supervisors or for exhibition purposes. I am slightly allergic to model plans—big, elaborate plans full of a lot of hokum. I am talking of the bread-and-butter variety, the day-to-day stuff. In the slight hope that a few teachers may profit, let me describe how I work out my plans.

MODIFICATION. Several terms ago, I was given a new subject to teach. Each day the lesson plan was written out. The aim, the exercise and problems to be used, the procedure and homework assignments were listed. As the lesson proceeded, written notations were made of the many defects. This exercise was too difficult; that problem was too long; more drill material was needed, etc. After listening to student complaints, I modified many of the homework assignments. These plans were carefully preserved. The next term I was again assigned the same subject. The old lesson plans were taken out and re-written. Again, as the lesson went along, notations were made of possible improvements. Although I have not taught the subject for a third time, I am saving these lesson plans for just that occasion.

I have found that if I follow this procedure for four or five terms I finally get my true bearings. From then on there is generally smooth sailing. I am in the position of a performer with a script in front of him and not in the position of an ad-lib artist who may or may not achieve success.

MECHANICAL FEATURES. Included in these plans are various notation which have been found to be very helpful. For instance, a record is kept of all the paper and supplies that students have received so that they may be held strictly to account. Such items as inspection of books and collection of classwork to be marked for neatness are inserted at appropriate places. Bits of humor, which have stood the test of classroom use, are included. Finally, the lessons are timed. The presentation needs so many minutes; that exercise so many minutes, etc. It is thus possible to set the proper tempo of the lesson. If this sounds awfully mechanical, I assure the reader that it does not work out that way. Of course, one cannot do this with discussion subjects such as English or the social studies. But it can be done with technical subjects such as mathematics, bookkeeping, and the sciences.

But, says an objector, don't you fall into a rut using the same plans term after term? The type of teacher who is willing to go through the procedure described above is hardly the type to fall into a rut. He will be constantly making minor changes—adding here, subtracting there. What's more, a really good lesson remains a good lesson even if it is given many times.

To sum up, you will save yourself a very great amount of time and labor, over the course of a lifetime, by spending considerable time planning your lessons when you begin a subject. After that you can take life easy. Lesson plans, I like them.

HENRY OWEN
James Monroe High School

INTERCULTURAL BLUEPRINT FOR A VOCATIONAL HIGH SCHOOL

The Intercultural Education Committee of the Brooklyn High School for Specialty Trades,* having met five times within the past three months, herewith submits its accepted principles and program for the February-June, 1945 term as part of its planning and approach to the problem of cultural pluralism in this country, this city, this community, and this school.

I. Guiding Principles

A. Intercultural education is to be considered an indispensable element in education for a progressing democracy and not a negative

* Anastasia Hayes; T. Pipitone; H. M. Pollet; R. B. Woodleton; H. B. Yager; S. Zarachoff; D. Platta, chairman, and S. H. Levine, secretary.

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instrument to be used only when a difficulty, a riot, or a "situation" calls for a counter measure.

B. Into the school, the student brings with him the attitudes and habits that have become part of him as a member of a family, a religious group, a neighborhood, or a particular organization or school of thought. Consequently, all these factors must be recognized, dealt with, and integrated into the over-all plan for intercultural education.

C. Affecting student behavior (attitudes, habits, knowledges, skills) along interculturally desirable lines is not possible through only isolated media like an essay contest, an assembly, a lesson on brotherhood, or any other single device. What is required is a long-range, continuous, correlated, variegated, program that takes in all aspects of school life and as many facets of community life as possible.

D. Properly to effect the kind of program posited in C requires specific term-by-term planning for the best results through coordinated assemblies, class lessons, contests, campaigns, and school-community relationships.

E. Ultimately, the degree of success attained by the school in its program of intercultural education will, in great part, be determined by the extent to which the administration's interest and cooperation are reflected in the availability of teacher time, the opportunity for leadership, initiative, originality, and the ease with which facilities are made available to the committee and any teachers working with them.

II. Suggested Over-All Program

In line with the guiding principles outlined above, the recommendations that follow have been adopted by the Intercultural Education Committee to attain the most effective results. The principal should particularize the items he will permit the committee and the faculty to effect as pre-planned.

A. *Subject Areas*

Since certain contents and procedures, by their very nature, lend themselves to particular or intense intercultural studies and activities, the committee has allocated the following departments as the centralizing and clearing agencies for intercultural instruction during the term specified.

Term	*Department or Subject*
1.	Science
2.	Occupations
3.	Shop
4.	Vocational Economics
5.	English
6.	Health Education
7.	Shop Information
8.	American History

It is clearly understood that at all times the Intercultural Education Committee will co-operate with the departments and will assist all individual teachers.

B. *Assemblies*

To launch, correlate, and culminate the various class, school, and community activities relative to interculture, the following calendar of assemblies is deemed best:

1. February 21 (Wednesday)	Brotherhood Assembly to launch term's program
2. March 28 (Wednesday)	Festival Assembly Passover-Easter program
3. April 13 (Friday)	Pan-American Assembly Hemisphere Neighbors program
4. May 29 (Tuesday)	Memorial Day Assembly culminating program

It is felt that the committee should assume the responsibility of planning and conducting these assemblies. Also, that whatever timely or urgent unrelated items might have to be included should be so introduced and treated as to fit into the framework of the particular assembly concerned.

C. *School-Wide Features*

1. Essay contest
2. Public speaking contest
3. Art contest
4. Weekly message to students
5. Weekly message to faculty
6. A feature in each issue of *Opportunity News*
7. Short, inspirational theme in each set of faculty conference notes
8. Scrapbook projects
9. Organization and activation of a student committee

The committee is ready to assume full responsibility for any and

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all aspects of this over-all program of Inter-cultural Education under the cooperative and active aegis of the school administration.

This blueprint was accepted, in toto, by the principal of the Brooklyn High School for Specialty Trades, Mr. I. David Cohen, two weeks before the start of the present term. This permitted due organization and pre-planning for the full program currently being realized and implemented in the school.

SAMUEL H. LEVINE Brooklyn High School for Specialty Trades

A LANGUAGE TEACHER VIEWS THE HARVARD REPORT

This writer does not doubt the sincerity and integrity of the Harvard Committee which spent much time and effort in drawing up the report. However, he feels that some of its conclusions are open to question.

This writer will limit his remarks and reactions to the section dealing with the study of foreign languages. It is his feeling that, however competent these experts may be in their respective fields, a clearer understanding would have been obtained had they consulted and conferred with high school language teachers and professional language associations that are constantly confronted with the vital problems of language instruction. The committee has failed to take into its confidence the expert advice available among those directly concerned with the teaching of foreign languages. Such procedure would, no doubt, have obviated some of the erroneous conclusions reached by the Harvard Committee. This writer heartily agrees with Dr. Theodore Heubener, acting director of foreign languages in New York City, who characterized this report as "a generally estimable document which fails to understand the basic purposes of foreign-language instruction."

Let us examine some of these misconceptions:

CULTURE AND TOOLS. No one can say with certainty *"that German and Spanish should be studied as a tool while French should be studied for its cultural value."* This writer believes this to be an invidious distinction which has no foundation. All modern foreign languages offer a combination of these two functions in addition to serving other useful purposes. This distinction is especially untenable in the case of high school students who cannot be expected,

so early in life, to come to definite decisions as to their later needs. At this point, the report seems to become paradoxical in that it stresses and advocates general education and training for all and, in the same breath, speaks of special language training for pupils for whom it is too early to decide on future careers. Those who cannot complete high school and those who will never attend college should be exposed to as much as possible since, for many, their high school years will offer all the formal training they will ever receive. All should be exposed to all possible avenues of language instruction since it is asking too much to expect youngsters to predict future necessities or trade possibilities, which are unpredictable. Surely, the late President Roosevelt or our General Eisenhower never foresaw in their youth the need that arose in the recent World Conflict for addressing foreign people in their native tongues. Junior and senior high school pupils should be exposed to all phases of language study. It is much too early for them to decide whether they are to study a foreign language as a tool or for its cultural value.

"THE KINDLING POINT." To say that those students who *"fail to bring language to the kindling point are wasting their time in the sense that they might have learned more from something else"* is a highly debatable question. Who is to decide what the kindling point ought to be? Who is to decide what would have been more useful to them? Are we to leave these decisions to the prejudices of authorities anxious to stress their respective specialties? Is learning to play the violin or the piano to be considered a waste of time if one does not achieve mastery in the art? Are we not to consider the self-satisfaction realized in playing less difficult or simplified selections? Similarly, have we a right to deprive students of the possibilities of acquiring a knowledge of a foreign language which would enable them to read, even the simplest books, for their own pleasure and enjoyment.

LANGUAGE AS A TOOL. *"Language as a tool will have to be gained when the need for it arises. Colleges will doubtless increasingly offer intensive courses, especially in summer sessions."*

The study of language as a tool cannot be left to the whim and fancy of college authorities who may be prejudiced against the study of foreign languages. It is a skill which cannot be acquired in a few weeks. Its mastery requires constant drill, repetition and conversa-

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tional practice, all of which should have their roots in the elementary school or early in the junior high school. Proper habits of speech can best be developed during these early, formative years when the boys and girls are still in the so-called plastic stage. At this early period in life, drill, imitation and repetition—necessary factors in language instruction—are not looked upon as childish and mere drudgery, an attitude often assumed by older students.

GENERAL LANGUAGE. It is the opinion of this writer that the teaching of a single foreign language seems to be preferable to general language courses, especially when dealing with young students.

General language, by its stress on structure of language, syntax, etymology, etc., is too technical and academic an approach for young boys and girls. It is a sure way to destroy their interest in the study of a language from the very start. It becomes too much a matter of receiving information with very little activity on the part of the pupil.

A single language, on the other hand, has a greater appeal for the pupils in that its study is much more interesting. It gives them a feeling of achievement and accomplishment. Their ability to use foreign expressions, however simple at the beginning, helps to make language a real and living thing for them. They can measure their progress along definite, tangible lines.

IN CONCLUSION. Let us continue to teach a foreign culture and speech through its language while bearing in mind that such instruction, in order to be vital and meaningful, must be constantly related to and compared with English speech, history and civilization.

WILLIAM S. HAFT Forest Hills High School

BUSINESS STUDENTS SHOULD USE THE SCHOOL LIBRARY

Last term at Bay Ridge High School I asked students in my stenography and bookkeeping classes what related business books they had opened in the past year aside from the textbook. In five classes just two students had referred to a business book. One was a student who had been absent continually and had borrowed a bookkeeping text from the public library to clear up some doubtful points. Another student had read a secretarial practice book for an English book report.

This term at Fort Hamilton High School no one of my students in business training, accounting or merchandising had opened any book on a business subject in the past year, aside from the text. This was not surprising in a first term business training class, just graduated from the elementary schools. But it did seem startling for business law students who are seventh and eighth termers and whose majors are commercial subjects. Neither had they ever referred to non-fiction magazines, like *Time, Business Week, Monthly Labor Review, Survey Graphic* and *Fortune,* to which the school library subscribes.

LACK OF INTEREST. Perhaps, by chance, I had been getting pupils in my classes who just had no desire to read. And so I referred to the school library shelves for a clue to school interest in business books. At Bay Ridge High School, in the final week of the term, when circulation was at a minimum, I found but two volumes on secretarial studies on the shelves. Examination of the book cards revealed that they had left the library four times in the past four years. There were no accounting books on the shelves although the card index showed the library possessed four accounting books, the latest date of publication being 1913. The librarian told me that she had not had a request for an accounting book in the past five years.

But this apparent lack of interest was not only limited to the few business books possessed by the library. At random, I picked books in the social and natural sciences which had provocative titles and I found that these books were borrowed rarely, too.

The delightful Fort Hamilton High School library has an extensive collection of over a hundred different modern business titles. Examination showed that these books had been borrowed just forty-four times. And apparently they were rarely consulted too, as a sampling of my five classes showed.

BOOKS AND BORROWINGS. Most popular of the books was *Pick Your Job and Land It* by S. W. and M. G. Edlund, not strictly a professional book, which had been lent by the library six times in 1943 and 1944. Of all the books on office practice and business training, just two were borrowed twice, once in 1942 and 1944, and the library had two copies of three titles in this field which were never lent. Pupils did not seem to be interested in secretarial prac-

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tice books either. The three copies of *The Private Secretary's Manual* by Turner had never been borrowed. Finney's and Kester's accounting texts were consulted only by teachers. Here, too, a random sampling of books in other fields showed the same lack of use.

An examination of twenty-two accounting books in the New Utrecht High School library showed the same lack of circulation. These books had been taken out of the library just seventeen times in the past four years. Nine books had not been borrowed at all in four years.

Everyone will agree offhand that a school library should have a great many books, fiction and non-fiction. They will agree, too, that non-fiction books should generally supplement the course of study and effort should be made to select books that will be interesting to pupils of high school age. We have many business books in the library, constantly add more, and yet pupils do not refer to them voluntarily.

LIBRARY LESSONS. It seems to me that business teachers should copy some of the methods used by teachers of other subjects. We should give library lessons showing what business resources the library possesses. We should make assignments to specific library books. During lengthened official class periods and assembly study periods we should ask the school librarian to bring business books to the classroom and have them stamped for circulation there. And we should demand book reports.

William Frank Rasche, in *The Reading Interests of Young Workers*, suggests the formation of a Reading Club. He says, *"It appeals to pupils who wish to earn reading diplomas. A diploma is given to a pupil who has read and reported on books rated by the librarians of the school as having a total value of* 100 *or more points. The value of a book on the approved list ranges from one to five points."* Perhaps by the formation of such clubs we can encourage widespread reading in subjects offered by the school.

It seems to me that library reference is hardly feasible during the first three terms of accounting because of the highly technical nature of the work. The first three terms of stenography are likewise too technical for much reference. But certainly business training and the third year of accounting afford an opportunity for much outside reading. Merchandising and salesmanship, and secretarial and office practice likewise present a fertile field for reference.

BUSINESS LAW AND THE LIBRARY. In spite of arched eyebrows and the pupils' feeling that I had somehow usurped the functions of the English teacher, I chose my business law class for a library lesson. The lesson began with an examination of the business book shelves in the library. The reference section was next examined, particular attention being paid to Black's *Law Dictionary*, the *Manual for the Use of the Legislature of the State of New York* and *Guide to the Municipal Government of the City of New York*.

Next the magazine rack was consulted. Magazines of particular interest to business students like *Monthly Labor Reviews, Survey Graphic, United States News, Business Week, Consumers' Research Bulletin, Time* and *Fortune* were discussed as to policy and contents. Near the close of the lesson a mimeographed sheet containing questions culled from information in the magazines and books examined was distributed. Sources of reference were indicated beneath each question.

OUTCOMES. Some pupils thought that I had wasted my time in giving the library lesson. They said that they would never look at these books anyway even though they now knew the school had them in the library. Others were delighted with the lesson. Typical comments were: "I never knew the library had other textbooks in accounting and business law." "I'm going to look through these secretarial books this afternoon." "The *Accountants' Handbook* looks awfully dull."

FOLLOW UP. The natural follow-up to the library lesson, of course, consisted of the assignment of book reports to the class. A mimeographed bibliography of business books in the school library had been prepared from the library's shelf list and was posted. Pupils were directed to report on any book from the list. Since some books were texts and others were obviously too technical for pupils to read in their entirety, pupils were asked to submit their choice of book to me for specific recommendations as to assignment.

It is wasteful indeed to have so many books used so rarely. School librarians are only too anxious to be of assistance. But it is the reciprocal responsibility of the teacher to keep himself informed of what books are in the school library and whether adequate use is made of library facilities.

SIDNEY C. GOULD
Fort Hamilton High School

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THE INTENSIVE READING LESSON IN SCIENTIFIC GERMAN

The following lesson plan is a concrete and detailed illustration of how language study in the high schools can be correlated with a science curriculum without losing its identity as language study. It is one way of making the study of a foreign language more meaningful to students whose aptitudes and interests are predominantly scientific. At the same time it scrupulously observes the major aims and techniques of language study. The lesson plan incorporates the following principles of foreign-language instruction:

1. A clear realization of the aim and careful planning in advance are the prime requisites for a successful lesson.
2. All factors tending to block comprehension and fluency of reading should be cleared up in advance.
3. The teaching of vocabulary and syntax should aim beyond the immediate points involved and provide the student with a tool for reasoning out new linguistic experiences in the future.
4. Translation from the foreign language into English should only be used as a last resort after all other means of ensuring comprehension have been exhausted.

LESSON PLAN FOR INTENSIVE READING IN SCIENTIFIC GERMAN

(Grade: third-term German; time required, 45 minutes)

TOPIC. *DAS PRISMA*, p. 20, *A First German Course for Science Students*, by Fiedler and Sandbach, Oxford University Press, 1936ff. The entire selection is herewith reprinted by permission of the publishers.

DAS PRISMA

Das optische Prisma ist ein Stück eines durchsichtigen, von zwei nicht parallelen Ebenen begrenzten Körpers. Der Schnitt der Ebenen heisst die brechende Kante, der Winkel der Ebenen der brechende Winkel. Ein auf ein Prisma fallender Lichtstrahl wird zuerst von einer, dann wieder von der anderen Ebene in seiner Richtung geändert, und der Winkel zwischen seiner ursprünglichen und seiner neuen Richtung wird die Ablenkung genannt.

Der Gang des Lichtstrahls durch ein bestimmtes Prisma ist vom Brechungsexponenten abhängig. Aber jede Farbe hat einen eigenen Brechungsexponenten. Ein auf das Prisma treffender, aus Rot und Grün bestehender, weisser Lichtstreifen wird sich z.B. (zum Beispiel) in zwei Streifen, einen roten und einen grünen, auflösen. Dabei erleidet der rote Streifen, wie Sie sehen, keine so grosse Ablenkung, wie der grüne.

Wir haben also im Prisma ein einfaches Mittel zu entscheiden, ob eine Flamme ein einfarbiges Licht aussendet. Wir können weisses Sonnenlicht

mittelst des Prismas in unzählige Farben zerlegen. Ein weisses von der Sonne kommendes Lichtband zerlegt sich in einen ganzen Farbenfächer. Auf dem Schirm entstehen unzählige Spaltbilder neben einander, jedes von anderer Farbe. Sie bilden ein Farbenband, das sogenannte Sonnenspektrum.

Die Spektralbilder sind verschiedener Art. Glühende Gase geben nur einzelne Spektrallinien, während glühende feste Stoffe stets ein kontinuierliches Spektrum geben. Durch die Spektralanalyse sind mehrere neue Elemente von Bunsen und anderen Forschern entdeckt worden.

AIM. To read with comprehension, fluency and pleasure.

PREPARATION. (1) By the teacher—Review basic concepts in physics textbook. Have illustrative diagrams ready if pupils cannot supply them or if it becomes necessary to check on their work. Prepare assignment topics and, on the day before the lesson, assign these topics to pupils by rows. Write a review list of words previously learned and occurring in this lesson. Write a list of the difficult or new syntactical items on a slip. Underline new words, syntactical items and pronounciation problems in the German text. Prepare question slips for comprehension testing and summary. Make sure there are several blackboard rules and piece of string for chalk compasses ready at the board.

(2) By the pupils.—Row 1—Consult encyclopedia or other suitable source for information on Robert Bunsen. Prepare a one-minute talk on his career and achievements. Row 2—Review subject of refraction in physics textbook. Write out scientific definitions of basic concepts. Row 3—Prepare diagram of a prism illustrating the refraction of light. Row 4—Be prepared to explain the principle and uses of the spectroscope. Row 5—Prepare diagram illustrating the solar spectrum.

(3) At beginning of period.—The teacher designates various pupils, on the basis of his previous topic assignments, to draw their diagrams on the board. To save time, this is done before the entire class has assembled. All diagrams illustrating basic concepts are placed on the side board, leaving the front board free for the lesson of the day. The diagrams of the prism and of the solar spectrum are placed in the center of the front board, as the new vocabulary will later be taught on the basis of these two diagrams. The teacher gives his list of review words to the class secretary, who copies them on the extreme left of the front board. Another pupil is asked to copy the list of syntactical items on the extreme right of the front

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board. Pupils need not label their diagrams at this time. After the entire class has assembled and the attendance has been taken, stray bits of paper picked up from the floor, ventilation and lighting attended to, the pupils at the board will have completed their work and gone back in their seats.

MOTIVATION. (2 minutes)—The teacher calls on a pupil from row 1 to tell the story of Robert Bunsen and the spectroscope. Pupils in row 1 and row 4 check on statements and supply additional details when called for. After the story has been told, the teacher asks, "What principle is the spectroscope based on?" Pupil from row 4: "It's based on the refraction of light." Teacher: "That's right. Now, today we are going to read about this subject in German, but before we can do that we must make sure that we understand the underlying ideas."

REVIEW OF BASIC CONCEPTS. (5 minutes)—The teacher calls on the pupils who have drawn their diagrams on the board to label them and to explain the principles they demonstrate. Experts in the appropriate rows are called on by the teacher whenever explanations are faulty or require amplification. The teacher, mindful of the German words to be taught later, makes suggestions as to further labeling of the two diagrams on the front board. The following are the basic concepts and suggested diagrams:

REFRACTION is the bending which light undergoes when it leaves one medium to enter obliquely another of different optical density (*diagram of a pencil in a glass of water*).

CAUSE OF REFRACTION.—The speed of light depends upon the medium through which it travels. It will travel faster in a vacuum than in air, faster in air than in glass, etc. This change in speed cause refraction to take place (*diagram of a wave-front entering water*).

INDEX OF REFRACTION=

$$\frac{\text{speed of light in air}}{\text{speed of light in other medium}}$$

THE PRISM.—The incident ray will be seen to bend toward the normal when it enters the glass and away from the normal when it

emerges. This occurs because light, obliquely entering a medium of greater optical density, will be slowed up and thus be refracted towards the normal. When the light enters a medium of lesser optical density, it will be speeded up and hence refracted away from the normal (*diagram of a prism showing total deviation*).

THE SOLAR SPECTRUM.—If white light is passed through a narrow slit and then through a triangular glass prism, and the emergent light permitted to fall on a white screen, it will be found to consist of a series of colors, red, orange, yellow, green, etc. This is due to the different extent of refraction of the different colors (*diagram illustrating dispersion of white light*).

PRESENTATION. (15 minutes) (1) *New vocabulary*: The teacher proceeds to label the diagrams on the front board in German. He prints the German term under each English label. The printed German matter should stand out more prominently than the English. The class pronounces each new German word and phrase in chorus after the teacher. This teaches all the new terms that can be taught by means of the diagrams. The result on the board is the following:

refraction of light die Brechung des Lichts	*the refracting angle* der brechende Winkel
index of refraction der Brechungsexponent	*the refracting edge* die brechende Kante
the path of a ray of light der Gang des Lichstrahls	*the deviation* die Ablenkung

(Diagram of a prism showing total deviation.)

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solar spectrum Sonnenspektrum	*band of colors* Farbenband, Farbenfächer
slit Spalt	*images of the slit* Spaltbilder
beam of white light weisses Lichtband	*red* rot
screen Schirm	*green* grün

(Diagram illustrating dispersion of white light)

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The teacher then proceeds to teach those new terms which cannot be taught by means of the diagrams, as follows:

durchsichtig (through plus sight; Das Glas ist durchsichtig.)
begrenzt (Grenze—Niagara liegt an der Grenze zwischen den Vereinigten Staaten und Kanada; Das Prisma ist von zwei nicht parallelen Ebenen begrenzt.)
bestimmt (Vielleicht regnet es, ich weiss nicht bestimmt.)
abhängig (hängen—Latin root, pend—)
erleiden (Leid, leiden, "suffer a sea-change"—Das hat Shakespeare gesagt. Welches englische Wort sagen wir heute dafür?)
unzählig (Zahl, zählen—Was man nicht zählen kann, heisst unzählig.)
glühend (Das heisse Eisen ist rot, es glüht, es ist glühendes Eisen.)

(2) *Syntactical problems.* The teacher calls the attention of the class to the phrases incorporating syntactical items on the extreme right-hand side of the board. They are the following:

1. von zwei nicht parallelen Ebenen begrenzt
2. ein auf ein Prisma fallender Lichtstrahl
3. ein auf das Prisma treffender, aus Rot und Grün bestehender Lichtstreifen
4. ein weisses von der Sonne kommendes Lichtband
5. mittelst des Prismas—verschiedener Art
6. wird . . . genannt—sind . . . entdeckt worden

All these items are taught by a review of the grammatical point involved. For items 1 through 4, review present and past participles in English and in German. Elicit difference between English and German word order in participial phrases. If necessary, call on pupils to number the German words according to English word-order sequence. For items in 5, elicit the case and the reason for it. For items in 6, use the forms in short German sentences, e.g. Das Land, wo wir wohnen, wird Amerika genannt. Durch die Spektralanalyse sind neue Elemente entdeckt worden.

(3) *Review old vocabulary.* Choral reading of the words on the left-hand side of the board. Pupils are told to raise hands if they cannot recall the meaning of any of these words. Teacher calls on other pupils to supply answers. The review list follows:

die Ebene	die Richtung	die Farbe
der Schnitt	der Streifen	das Bild
der Körper	das Mittel	das Gas
die Kante	das Licht	der Stoff
der Winkel		

(4) *Pronunciation drill.* Choral repetition of all new words on

the front board, with particular attention placed on stress where it differs from that in corresponding English words.

'durchsichtig	paral'lel	'brechend
'Ablenkung	be'stehend	Brechungs-expo'nent
'unzählig	Spek'tral-bilder	Spek'tral-ana'lyse
Spek'tral-linien	Ele'ment	ent'deckt

READING. (10 minutes). Books are opened for the first time. The teacher reads one paragraph at a time and then calls on various pupils to read a few sentences each from the same paragraph. The class is asked to be on the alert for errors of pronunciation, but to wait until the reader is finished before suggesting a correction. Corrections accepted as valid by the teacher are repeated by the pupil who had made the error. A second reading of the entire passage is conducted in the same manner, this time without the teacher as a model. Any questions about the meaning of certain words or constructions are answered by pointing out the explanation on the board. Questioners with individual problems not applicable to the class as a whole or not pertinent to the main points of the lessons are asked to defer their questions till the end of the period.

COMPREHENSION DRILL. (5 minutes). Books remain open. The teacher reads the questions he has prepared on slips. Pupils are informed that they may select an answer from the text, or merely use the text as an aid in formulating their own answer. The pupil who gives the correct answer in good German is sent to the board with the question slip. He copies the question and then writes his answer underneath it. The teacher goes on to the next question as soon as the previous pupil has been dispatched to the board. This goes on continuously until all the questions and answers are on the board. These are the questions:

1. Welcher Winkel wird die Ablenkung genannt?
2. Welcher Winkel ist der brechende?
3. Wovon ist der Gang des Lichstrahls abhängig?
4. Worin zerlegt sich ein weisses Lichtband?
5. Wodurch hat Bunsen neue Elemente entdeckt?

SUMMARY. (8 minutes). The teachers starts a "chain reaction" by calling on one pupil to read the first question from the board. After reading the question, the pupil calls on a classmate to read the answer. When the latter is done, he calls on another pupil to

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read the next question, and so on, until all the questions and answers have been covered. The answers are then erased, and there is a second run-through in the same manner. The questions and answers provide the summary of the lesson.

MAXIM NEWMARK. Brooklyn Technical High School

WHAT HAVE WE LEARNED?

War is a cruel teacher. It is not a good teacher. The lessons that we learn from war are, all too often, soon forgotten. If permanency of retention is a sign of good teaching, then war has not left its mark. The history of modern wars has shown a resurgence of interest in the health of the nation followed soon after by neglect and indifference. This time we cannot neglect our nation's greatest asset, the health of its young people. We cannot afford to forget the lessons that health education has learned from this war, in so tragic a way. We must therefore resolve to learn from our past mistakes. We cannot neglect the educational potential to be derived from a real program of health education. It isn't for us to remember. It is rather for us to keep our goals before the public's mind, so that *they* may not forget. We've got to do a job of public relations so that these lessons are ultimately incorporated into our educational system.

LESSONS FROM THE WAR. We have learned that the health status of our young men and women is bad. One-third to one-half of our eligible young men have been rejected for military service. The appalling fact is that most of these disabling defects *could have been corrected.* The very defects causing rejection are the ones which we have listed so often as the remediable defects of childhood. They are the defects which have been allowed to be neglected in school children. For too many years we have been sacrificing the health of our youth on the altar of neglect and indifference. If the health of our nation is so vital in war, how much more important is it in times of peace! All teachers of health education must resolve to fight for a fifth freedom, "Freedom from ill health."

THE SCHOOL'S PART. Our schools must lead in a health crusade. Through the pupil, we must educate the home, the community, and the state. We must demand adequate regular medical exam-

inations of all the children. More important we must insist as a civic responsibility that the defects of childhood which are thus discovered be corrected. Correction of medical defects should be a state responsibility. Teeth should be put into the state laws to enforce correction. We enforce compulsory smallpox vaccination, and diphtheria inoculation. Why not enforce dental treatment, or tonsillectomy? The premise is the same. The health of our future citizens is the concern of the state. After all, a state that invests thousands of dollars in the education of its children, has a right to expect that these children should be able to fulfill their promises and gifts of citizenship in a democracy.

COOPERATION. We must enlist the cooperation of the medical profession to insure the health of our school children. The doctors of the nation have a stake in the welfare of their patients. Clinical facilities should be made available for the exclusive use of school children. It is only through continued examination and correction of remediable defects that we can assure the health of the child and the future citizens of our democracy.

MAJOR EMPHASIS. We have learned of the appalling ignorance of our youth with regard to correct health habits and practices. Young inductees did not know nor did they practice habits of healthful living. As a result, the Army had to undertake an extensive educational campaign in the basic principles of hygiene and healthful living. Our men had to learn good health practices in a hurry, the hard way. This process should have been one of the functions of the schools. We must, particularly in our secondary schools, institute a health course that is a real, vital, functioning part of the lives of our pupils. These pupils, as well as our returning soldiers, will be our missionaries of public health. As missionaries they must be imbued with the zeal and attitudes of reformers. They must adopt our cause as their own. Health teaching in all its phases must therefore receive major emphasis in time and effort in our schools if our objectives are to have any effect upon the lives of our students and their converts.

NUTRITION. For a large section of our population, habits of nutrition will be changed. The old diet of hominy and hogs will be supplanted by the newer, larger knowledge of nutrition. The

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personal advertising of our veterans must be taken advantage of. Subsidized school lunches prepared by trained dietitians will become part of the daily accepted scheme of things. Nutrition has its educational aspects which must not be neglected. Time and energy, as well as trained teachers, can do a job in this field that will confer lasting benefits upon our people.

TOO EASY? We have learned that our pedagogy and ideals in physical education have been too soft. Our young people have been coddled and babied. They couldn't take the rigors of military training. Many of them cracked up. Valuable time during the early years of the war had to be taken to get our young men, in the prime of their lives, into good physical condition. Physical fitness in peace time is just as important to our welfare as it is in war. Let us try to build a healthy, vigorous, physically fit population.

Our boys must learn how to take it. They must learn how to sustain intense, prolonged physical effort in order to build endurance, strength and vigor. They must build up a potential reserve of organic strength. They must learn how to conserve as well as use their strength in adaptive, co-operative effort.

A LONG-TERM PROGRAM. The development of physical fitness for peace and democratic living is a long-term proposition. It cannot be done overnight. It cannot be inculcated in two periods per week of forty minutes duration. We've learned that a man needs at least an hour a day of sustained varied activity to keep himself fit. He needs physical exercise all year round at regular intervals. He needs lots of running, jumping, climbing, and lifting to exercise all of his big-muscle groups. To do the job right the schools must provide the space, facilities, time, and trained personnel. The schools, especially the administrators, must revise their standards of educational values. Physical fitness is a *must.* The job of physical fitness must be shared by the school as an educational responsibility.

ATHLETICS. We have learned that competitive athletics have served us well in developing morale, in developing the team spirit that is so vital in warfare, in developing physical fitness. We have marked the place of athletics as a means of relaxing the battle-shocked mind, and the war-racked body. We have learned the im-

portance of broadening the base of participation in competitive athletics. All pupils must have the opportunity and privilege of competing in team games and tournaments. The emphasis, as ever, should be upon the many, rather than the few. Interscholastic sports have their niche in the future scheme of things. But this program should not be allowed to take the place of a broad intramural program. All students should be allowed the thrills and benefits of team competition.

A well-balanced program of both interscholastic athletics and intramural program demands an adequate trained staff, with sufficient time, equipment, and facilities to do the job. The sports way is the American way. The peacetime benefits of sports are unquestioned, especially by those men in the armed forces who were exposed, for the first time, to such a program.

THERAPY. We have learned of the results of the impact of war and its grim realities upon the nervous system. We have learned of the values of recreation in rehabilitating shattered nerves. Recreation through athletics offers a therapeutic release to the disintegrated personality. We have learned, only too well, that certain types of personalities have not been trained to accept either responsibility or reality. Such individuals have been pampered beyond reason. The social and physical responsibilities encompassed in a well-rounded program of physical education contributes much of worth to the objective of a wholesome, well-rounded personality. All the pupils must be allowed the healing benefits of recreative activity.

What have we learned? Nothing. That is, nothing new.

IN RETROSPECT. All of the things about health education that we have learned are old lessons for us, rehashed, and re-emphasized. The grim lessons brought home by the war are only the shortcomings of past programs coming home to roost on the doorstep. Let us not cast blame, for health educators know where the blame lies. Our far-seeing professional leaders have been agitating for several decades for these things that we know are important to the youth of our nation. We haven't been able to get to "first base" with our program. Now, our story and our ideals have to be carried to the general public. Our returning fighting sons are the ones who should be enlisted to carry the ball for us. They can get adequate facilities, time, and personnel. Let our educational

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leaders give them the right signals, and let our veterans and citizenry carry the ball for a touchdown towards a healthier and fitter nation.

GORDON LEBOWITZ — Eastern District High School

Books

The American Story by Archibald MacLeish. Duell, Sloan & Pearce Inc., New York, 1944.

In these ten radio scripts written for the *University of the Air* program of the National Broadcasting System, Archibald MacLeish opened a new field for radio presentation. He attempted to dramatize the *"original narratives and first hand accounts of early voyages and settlements and wars"* of those who participated in or witnessed the early days of the Europeans in the Americas.

These radio plays cover the period from the discoveries of Columbus to Bacon's Rebellion and the failure of José Galan, champion of the people of Colombia. Columbus tells his own story through quotations taken from his *Journal*. The material on Plymouth is quoted from Governor William Bradford's *History of the Plymouth Plantation*. *Nat Bacon's Bones* is based on excerpts taken from the work of a contemporary of Bacon, *Beginning, Progress and Conclusion of Bacon's Rebellion* (Ms. 1705) by Thomas Mathew.

The plays are not dramatizations in the usual sense. No attempt has been made to imitate the historical dramas of the stage, to have characters re-live their parts. Instead, through the use of a narrator and sound effects, Mr. MacLeish placed the excerpts from these diaries and other historical documents into their appropriate settings in time. The focal point of the reader's attention is the spoken word, not the interpretation of character, the fanfare of martial sound effects or the dramatist's thesis or sympathies.

When the material employed has the innate drama of conflict—as in *The Many Dead*, where the author used understatement and a matter-of-fact clerk's accounting of the Whiteman's ruthlessness to describe the destruction of the Indian—the play reaches a high degree of intensity. Not so successful are those in which the element of opposing forces is lacking; in *The Names of the Rivers*, the machinery comes through, the words and phrases sound pompous and the lack of humor becomes obvious.

The technique employed in these presentations is admirably suited for high school assembly radio plays; so too, is the lesson, that the story must be dramatic and pointed.

JEROME SHOSTAK

Young Voices. Harper and Brothers, 1945.

Some of the best student-writing for the years 1926-1945 appears in this anthology of *Scholastic* poetry and prose. All the confusion, the terror, the minor crises, the strength, the hopes, and the idealism of twenty disturbed

years are reflected in the material submitted to *Scholastic* magazine. The winnowed best is represented in this volume. The collection is divided into four parts: *Salad Days, The Lean Years, Interval,* and *Time of Conflict.* A growing seriousness, concern for the larger issues of our lives, becomes apparent as one reads through the book.

The problems that concern youth are all here. In stories, Maureen Daly's *Sixteen* reflects the poignancy and sentimentality of adolescent romance. Charles Damon's *Hot Summer Day* unforgettably delineates race prejudice from the point of view of an insignificant innocent sufferer. Sally Ann Dixon's *Forever and a Day* depicts youth's cruel honesty, even though the heedless cruelty of youth may seem unnecessary to adult eyes.

The poems are particularly excellent. Some of the finest qualities of our young people are reflected best in the poems: worldly wisdom (*Exhibit*—by Marjorie Lederer); perceptiveness (*Growth of the Male*—by Gordon Grey Emerson); intelligent awareness of adult life (*Husbands and Wives*—by Miriam Hershenson); appreciation of nature (*Heaven*—by Adela Beckham); humor (*My Sins*—by Perry Hudgings); bitter indignation at race prejudice (*Hypocrite*—by Elizabeth Hart); and sadness (*I Never Knew*—by Mary Betty Anderson).

This is a collection to own, to read to classes for stimulation and enjoyment, and to read oneself for insight into the lives and feelings of our finest young people.

HENRY I. CHRIST

(Clearing House Committee of the English Teachers Association of New York City)

Omnipotent Government by Ludwig von Mises. Yale University Press, 1944, 288 pages.

and

The Great Transformation by Karl Polyani. Farrar & Rinehart, Inc., 1944, 262 pages.

These two books are a study in diametrical opposites. The von Mises book claims to prove that our world is in its present mess because of its betrayal of the free untrammeled market economy. The Polyani book finds the cause of our general debacle in the "utopian" and inherently unworkable nature of the free market. Thus the focus of the issue is stated:—*the free economy would have brought the world to general welfare and general harmony* versus *the aims of general welfare and general harmony were compelled to struggle against the disintegrative influences of the free economy.*

In the former view all attempts at liquidating the free economy are destructive of the free and expansive nature of society; in the latter view the free market is itself an imposition and an obstruction upon the freedom of man. In the theory of von Mises man is individualistic and social welfare is realizable through the automatic working out of individual interests; while

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in the Polyani theory man is social and socially unitary and social welfare is realizable only through the social institutionalization of the ways of supply and demand. In the one human freedom is attainable only through the realization of individual choice in the market; in the other, human freedom is attainable only through the social control of supply and demand. To von Mises the destruction of the free market economy is the result of the utter incapacity of the masses to understand and appreciate its intricacies; while to Polyani its destruction is the result of the struggle of the masses against its inhumanity.

Von Mises sees the future without the free market economy in slavery or perpetual warfare; Polyani sees it under social control as a world of abundance and true human freedom. To the former a world without the free market economy will mean despotic statism and tyrannical regimentation; to the latter a socially-controlled economy will mean the release of human energies for a more expansive spiritual life. In von Mises there is a theory of psychology wherein the economic motive is deterministic and individualistic and generative of good; while in Polyani human psychology is based on the non-economic and socialized motives generative of moral ends without which a society cannot long exist in peace. "Utopian" is the word each employs for the other's theory and therefore illusory and self-destructive. In both there is a historiography to which they appeal to buttress their analysis of the present era.

To von Mises capitalism appeared as an emancipative and liberating force of human energies for material and intellectual progress from the restraints and the strait-jacket and the obscurantism and the rigidity of feudalism and the dark ages; while to Polyani capitalism appeared as a "satanic" force breaking up the basically social and fundamentally communal drives of man and hurling it into an era of atomistic mutual self-slaughter.

To von Mises free labor in the market economy is the sole guarantee of human freedom for the masses; to Polyani it is a fiction whereby he is compelled to work at the threat of starvation. To the one the gold standard is the guarantee of international trade and internal security; to the other it is an instrument whereby the private banker holds the world in the chains of low wages and colonial exploitation. To the one wages must be free to move as low as is necessary with the demands of the free market, so as to feed the profit motive of the employer in order to stimulate the latter into investing his capital and skill; to the other labor's rewards should be as high as the productive possibilities of the social order.

While von Mises still insists that the state must be free from economics and that their identification must mean the horrors of totalitarianism, Polyani shows how the state always interfered and intervened in order to put over the free market economy and that economics can be truly fruitful of social welfare only when under state control and planning.

Religion to von Mises is a matter of the private soul and is purely a non-economic institution to be allowed to practise in the free individualistic world of a free market economy; while to Polyani the establishment of a socially-controlled and planned economy will release the human soul for

greater and profounder religious experiences and practises combined with the service to genuine moral ends.

In so far as Marxism is concerned von Mises sees it as one of the several counter-movements against liberalism, while Polyani looks upon it as the heir of classical and liberal economics and in its present day manifestations in the Soviet Union as the result of the breakdown of the liberal economy and as a harbinger of the future economy of control and planning.

To von Mises Science was the handmaid of emancipation ushered forth by the appearance of capitalism; to Polyani it was an exploited agency in the hands of an immoral economic anarchy.

Needless to say both call for a most determined struggle against fascism; von Mises, on the grounds that fascism seeks to eliminate from the world the free and individualistic and competitive economy; Polyani, on the grounds that fascism is but the expression of the breakdown of the free market economy and proof that what is needed is a morally-motivated and socially-controlled and scientifically-planned economy. To von Mises the defeat of fascism ought to usher in a refreshed free market economy with greater respect for it from the peoples of the world as a result of its disgust with the regimentation and scarcity under fascism; to Polyani the defeat of fascism ought to bring a new world of abundance under a planned rule on a world scale wherein the economic motive is no longer dominant but is under the direction of the moral insight of humanity.

We can accept the sincerity of both men in their hatred of fascism, in their wish for a world of material abundance, in their desire for a life of human freedom, in their search for a way of life whereby human energies will be free to act for the enrichment of life, in their call or opportunity of spiritual variety and multiplicity to prevail. Both men undoubtedly represent lines of thought to which are attached great followings and which are allied in the struggle against fascism. But the question is: *Who is right in so far as the future is concerned and in the validity of their respective interpretations of the past developments emerging into the present dilemmas facing the world?*

The two aspects of the latter question are inseparable. If we accept one interpretation of the past we have got to accept its implications for policy for the future. The fact is that state control is in the saddle in the countries fighting fascism. Polyani is happy about it and calls for its continuation; von Mises calls for its scrapping. What shall we do? Can we scrap state control? *Can we afford to separate the state and its political activities from the economic activities of the social order? This is indeed the hub of the issues facing the makers of the postwar world.* If it is a matter of choice where is the wisdom we can look to for guidance? If it is a matter of historical and institutional compulsion have we the wisdom to grasp the reality and act accordingly? The strategic nature of our groping proves the importance of these two books.

MARTIN WOLFSON

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Your School and Its Government. National Self Government Committee, Inc.

The National Self Government Committee has added to its long list of services to the schools by the publication of this well written pamphlet. The authors start with what to some may seem a startling statement: *"The evidence that our youth do not understand and cherish the institutions of democracy is all about us. One has only to talk to the first ten high school graduates he meets to realize it. These high school graduates often think that democracy is something that gives them the right to do as they please, and that our government is vaguely 'pretty bad.' . . . The average adult American citizen is no better."* It is pointed out that the school is only one of many influences in developing citizens, but that the school must bear much of the blame for the situation since teaching citizenship is a primary responsibility of the schools and the main justification for tax-supported schools.

What are we going to do about it? Traditionally citizenship is taught by giving information about the structure and functions of government and the rights and duties of good citizens, supplemented by exhortations to be good citizens. The authors do not underestimate the importance of this side of citizenship training, but point out that it is useless unless it is well done. *"We must have teachers who thoroughly understand the principles of democracy and who believe in them. We must have teachers who can sustain an enthusiasm for the democratic way of life and impart it to their youth from year to year. We must beware of the teacher who loses his fire, because that teacher falls back on subject-matter as an educative device in itself. He organizes his life around his little subject and fails to effect any important difference in the lives of his students."*

The authors insist, however, that information and inspiration are not enough. Pupils need the opportunity to practice democracy, to practice cooperative living. They must learn to accept responsibility and to develop self control. They can get this only *"if the schools themselves become laboratories in democratic government, laboratories in which our youth can fully understand what is going on about them and the reasons therefor, can make decisions for themselves and actively participate in their own world. How can a youth be expectedd to participate in adult society if he has never been given an opportunity to take part in the society of youth, the public school?"*

To the reply commonly heard, "But we already have a Council," six reasons are given why student government has not functioned effectively:

Failure to get total school participation
2. Failure to attack problems that are real to youth.
3. Failure to have faith in young people
4. Failure to give the Council a position of importance in the school
5. Failure to measure results
6. Misunderstanding by teachers and administrators

"We tend to sway back and forth between two extreme positions—on the one hand, that of the dictattor or benevolent autocrat, and on the other hand, that of the outsider who takes no part in the decisions or activities but who

criticizes their results. We have not yet learned how to lend the benefit of our maturity and experience without dominating the group."

Six *"musts"* for a successful Council are:

1. It must include everybody.
2. It must give everyone in the building a feeling of partnership.
3. There must be many opportunities to serve.
4. There must be opportunity and machinery for legislation by the ordinary citizen of the school.
5. There must be ample opportunity for discussion by the ordinary citizen of the school.
6. It must allow for mistakes.

As a means of securing participation by the ordinary citizen of the school, a broad basis of representation such as the home room, a selected subject area, or a special period, is urged. If the Council is to really function, a period of from 30 to 60 minutes each week must be provided in which the entire school, in small groups, can discuss student government aaffirs.

To those who ask, *"Where should school government stop and 'regular school' start?"* the authors answer: *"The school's major function is to help youth to become more effective citizens. That purpose should permeate every classroom and every school activity. It should influence the school clubs, and other extracurricular functions (which are merely means of implementing the council's work). It should influence administrative decisions, parent relations, guidance, and discipline. Above all, this business of building better citizens should affect instructional purposes, activities, and evaluative methods."*

During the war there was a great expansion of student activities in war work, both within the school and in cooperation with community agencies. The closer relationships between the school and the community which were developed should not be allowed to die out, but should be extended to developing wider community contacts in which the students can learn democratic procedures while doing work of value to the community.

The evaluation of results is stressed as an important part of developing an effective program of student participation. Among the techniques for evaluating results mentioned are:

1. Use of anonymous check lists and comment sheets regarding projects
2. Surveys of student opinion through school newspaper columns
3. Open forum discussions and school assemblies
4. Written evaluations of specific projects by committtees or officers
5. Discussions in faculty meetings and parent groups of purposes and achievements in school government
6. Comparison and study of government in other schools.

The pamphlet closes with a short list of "don'ts," and a "challenge to leadership" to all interested in the education of young people to use the enthusiasm, idealism, and energy of young people as a means of helping in the solution of our school problems while they are learning to become democratic citizens.

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This pamphlet contains little that is new. Much of what it has to say has already been said in previous publications of the National Self Government Committee and elsewhere. It has the value of both stating clearly and briefly the underlying philosophy for student partiicpation, and giving valuable suggestions as to how this philosophy may be put into practice. It deserves careful reading by all high school teachers and administrators.

HARRISON C. THOMAS

Our Teen-Age Boys and Girls by Lester D. Crow and Alice Crow; McGraw-Hill Book Company; 1945; 360 pages; $3.00.

Because of the publicity given the more sensational activities of adolescents in the press, on the screen, and over the air, a cursory glance at the title of this book brings a brief associative image of "flaming youth.." Nothing could be more contrary to the purpose and achievement of the authors in their sound and sane approach to the problems and influences affecting the growing-up process of young boys and girls. Based on years of training and experience in the field of youth guidance, serious thought has been given by Dr. Crow and Mrs. Crow to the solution of these problems.

The book deals with the development of young people in the home, in school, at work, and in society. In each of these four fields, the most important phases of adjustment are explored. Suggestions are offered that blend the mental-hygiene, psychological, and socio-economic approaches into a common-sense whole. Brief stories of the success or failure of youth's struggle toward maturity in our present complex world are liberally scattered throughout the book with the causes, effects, and remedies indicated.

Parents especially, as well as educators, employers, religious and spiirtual leaders of youth, will find the self-evaluating questionnaire at the end of each part of the book an aid in determining whether their own attitudes and actions are helpful or detrimental to the children they are molding. From surveys, polls, and studies of adolescents, the most common question asked by them about the troublesome aspects of their adjustment, have been culled and practical answers are given.

Throughout the book, there is a feeling of positive direction that alleviates, to some extent, the sense of frustration that so often overwhelms parents and teachers in their dealings with adolescents and the social structure about them. In the last section of the book, *Juvenile Delinquency,* recognition is made of this bruited subject as a *symptom* of Society's failure in parent education, slum clearance, community cooperation, the extension and improvement of educational, health, spiritual services. A series of statements from authorities in each field underlines the validity of the diagnosis. And from the conclusions drawn, impetus is given those who are at present working with young people, and should so energize their present efforts towards improvement of existing conditions that the publication of books on the problems of adolescents in future generations should be unnecessary.

BEATRICE MOSS

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High Points

MARCH, 1946

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HIGH POINTS

IN THE WORK OF THE HIGH SCHOOLS OF NEW YORK CITY

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The columns of HIGH POINTS are open to all teachers, supervising and administrative officers of the junior and senior high schools. Manuscripts not accepted for publication are not returned to contributors unless return is requested. All contributions *should be typewritten, double spaced, on paper 8½" by 11"*. They may be given to the school representatives or sent directly to the editor.

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Lawrence A. Wilkins (1878-1945) —A Tribute

The passing of Lawrence A. Wilkins has left us all with a sense of deep loss and sorrow. We shall miss his quiet dignity, his sensitive humanity, his uncompromising honesty, and his passionate devotion to the cause of foreign language education. His understanding spirit gave unity and direction to the efforts of all who were privileged to work with him. The present state of foreign language teaching is an enduring tribute to the profound influence exerted by Lawrence Wilkins. Our system has been immeasurably enriched and strengthened by his contributions.

With the death of Lawrence Wilkins a great teacher has passed from our midst.

JOHN E. WADE — Superintendent of Schools

* * * *

In the death of Lawrence Wilkins, the cause of foreign langauge teaching throughout the nation has suffered an irreparable loss. The man who for so many years guided the study of foreign language through its early, troubled stages to a position of dignity and maturity is no longer with us. He will be sorely missed by all who, like himself, were so intimately bound up with the great work for which he gave of himself with such ardor and single-minded zeal.

To us who lived and worked with him, Lawrence Wilkins was more than a figure and an influence. He was a devoted friend, a wise counsellor, a deeply simple man who sought in himself and in others those fundamental human values that gave such richness to his life and work.

FREDERIC ERNST — Associate Superintendent

* * * *

Until he began to show signs of poor health, I never thought of Lawrence Wilkins as subject to infirmity. Strength was his outstanding trait—strength of mind, strength of will.

His was a generous and engaging personality, which expressed itself in fidelity to lofty standards. His talent met ready recognition in rapid promotion to the position of Director of Modern Languages in High Schools. As Director he held an enviable place in the esteem of his fellow workers. Through hard work, ability and courage he soon won not only local but national distinction. He was in the forefront in the movement to modernize the teaching of foreign languages in the United States.

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In all of his numerous endeavors he proved himself a born leader and organizer. His influence was owing above all to his personal character, his tact, integrity, gentleness, broad sympathies, sincerity and warmth of affection.

The field of language has latterly lost some of its outstanding leaders. No leader will be missed more than Lawrence Wilkins, especially at this time when the future of language study is at stake; for none defended the cause of that study more staunchly or more effectively.

JACOB GREENBERG Associate Superintendent

* * * *

Dr. Wilkins was the first director of an academic subject appointed in our high schools. Before his appointment it had been assumed that the methods of teaching academic subjects had been so firmly established that no central offiecr was needed for improvements in methods and for stimulation of the teachers. The principal and chairman of department were thought to be entirely adequate for these ends.

But Mr. Wilkins soon proved the value of a farseeing expert not only in improving methods in the case of some teachers but in awakening our schools to the broader and deeper aims of modern language teaching in giving our boys and girls a world outlook and some consciousness of the culture and worthwhileness of people who used for them an alien tongue.

To further this aim he established *The Bulletin of High Points* first in mimeographed form for the stimulation of teachers of modern languages. But the high schools staff soon realized that its values were too great to be confined to the teachers of one subject and so Mr. Wilkins changed it in printed form to the *High Points* of today, known nation-wide. *High Points* is, as I see it, Lawrence Wilkins' greatest and most lasting contribution to American education. Its influence is as great in causing teachers of every subject to search themselves and voice their discoveries as it is with those who read it and revise their aims and practices.

JOHN L. TILDSLEY Associate Superintendent of Schools, Retired

* * * *

Lawrence Augustus Wilkins is dead. On the night before Christmas Eve he died, and henceforth his memory will forever be mingled with joy and new birth and peace on earth and good will to all men. And how appropriate—for this man was a man of peace

and of good will and of love. He was a proud man, and because he was proud of his manhood, he was profoundly humble. And he grew humbler as he gathered years and wisdom and gauged life more and more accurately.

There were many honors bestowed upon him, but always, he was prouder of the service he was doing, of the love and admiration of his colleagues. The number of friends that Wilkins had was legion. How could it be otherwise, given his personality—gentle, witty, genial, affectionate, kind, genuine, and just—a justice tempered by good will and deep understanding of the natural weaknesses of human beings? He was a courageous man, fighting for those whose destiny was in his hands, combatting wrong, constructive in his criticism, never angry or cynical or superior—a democrat in the Whitmanian sense of the word, an individual, loving his fellow-men. *"Natura lo fece, e poi ruppe la stampa."*

But his educatonal ideals will remain—must remain—if we are to survive in these strange, challenging days, replete with greatness or disaster. They were simple—as all good things must be—the preparation of every American child, dull as well as bright, for intelligent functioning citizenship. Language work, he was certain—and it seems incontrovertible—contributes to this aim, for language is the best means of understanding foreign peoples and their civilizations.

Of Wilkins it can never be said: *"Dios me libre de hombre de un libro,"* for the number of his books and pamphlets and articles in professional journals is staggering, and everything he put his hand to he did well because he was imbued with a will to perfection. He believed in thoroughness and practiced it, and what is rarer still, he succeeded in imbuing others—students and colleagues—with this same craftsman's attitude.

HYMEN ALPERN Evander Childs High School

* * * *

Wilkins was a man totally without pretentiousness or false front of any kind. He was as true a friend as any man could have. As champion of the cause he loved, he was bold, tireless, and resourceful. He hated sham in any grab and exposed it without hesitation wherever he found it.

He was responsible, more than any other one man, for popularizing in this country the rich culture of Hispanic peoples.

WILLIAM M. BARLOW Manual Training High School

* * * *

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I became intimately acquainted with Dr. Wilkins because of our common interests in the field of inter-American cooperation. I found Dr. Wilkins ever ready to give of his vast experience, always willing to contribute his time and energy to the development of a greater understanding amongst the peoples of the western hemisphere, as a basis for a universal peace movement. He contributed much to Pan-Americanism.

I miss his scholarly advice, his friendliness, his understanding of big problems, and his kindliness. We need men of the stature of Dr. Wilkins in our school system.

HENRY E. HEIN — James Monroe High School

* * * *

This friendly note was characteristic of Mr. Wilkins. With all his wisdom and learning Lawrence Wilkins placed human values first. He frowned on deceit, pretense, hypocrisy, double-dealing, and sought by word and deed to spread the gospel of charity, understanding and good will among men. He gathered unto himself the wisdom of his own and other nations and into this fabric of life which we call New York he wove a brilliant and enduring strand.

MICHAEL H. LUCEY, Principal (Retired), Forest Hills High School

* * * *

As Director of Modern Languages in the New York City High Schools, Lawrence Wilkins brought to the many duties of this important position profound understanding, wide knowledge and faithful zeal. All who were privileged to know him respected him for his integrity, admired him for his modesty, and honored him for his humaneness. His passing is indeed a sad loss; it will be no light task to find his peer.

ALFRED A. TAUSK — Boys High School

* * * *

I valued Mr. Wilkins as a loyal friend and a considerate supervisor. Perhaps the quality I most admired was his fearlessness. He never hesitated to stand for the right, even though it might be to his own disadvantage.

RUTH A. BAHRET — Thomas Jefferson High School

* * * *

To those of us who came into closest contact with Lawrence Wilkins as a supervisor there will ever remain the memory of an ideal supervisor, for he came into our classrooms as one who under-

stood our problems and sought to improve our work in such a manner that we welcomed his visits.

Courageous, busy and interested until the end, in spite of his illness and suffering, Lawrence A. Wilkins lived loftily and died loftily.

HELEN B. COLLINS — Julia Richman High School

* * * *

My remembrance of Lawrence T. Wilkins goes back farther, probably, than that of any of his present friends and admirers, since it was I who induced him in 1905, forty years ago, to cross the Bridge from the Boys' Commercial High in Brooklyn, where he was teaching French, to join the Faculty of DeWitt Clinton to take over some of the classes in Spanish that I had started the preceding term, the first classes in Spanish to be organized in any of the high schools of Greater New York.

Through all of those forty years, during part of which, I, as Chairman of the Departments of French and Spanish, was his boss, and part of which he, as Director of Foreign Languages, was my boss, our friendship flourished, fine and firm; for Lawrence, whether as subordinate or superior, was always patient, responsive, cooperate, and far-seeing. He belonged to that valiant band of educators, who, at the turn of the century, came from the West, the South, the four corners of the country, to build our New York secondary school system and to found the traditions that have made it second to none in the land.

COLMAN D. FRANK — DeWitt Clinton High School
Chairman (Retired), French Department

* * * *

Those who began their apprenticeship during Mr. Wilkins' last years as a supervisor were inspired by his rare qualities; a simple dignity, an unassuming manner, sound scholarship coupled with profound modesty, a deep understanding of human virtues offset by a stubborn refusal to cater to human vanities.

A leading teacher, Lawrence A. Wilkins was a leader of teachers *sans pareil*.

RENEE J. FULTON — Forest Hills High School

* * * *

Lawrence A. Wilkins was outstanding in his profession because he possessed the qualities that make a great leader. Himself a superior teacher, he knew how to develop in others the desire for

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self-improvement and the attainment of ideals. His was a brilliant mind that commanded respect and admiration both here and abroad. Distinguished as he was in the field of language teaching, it was, nevertheless, his many human qualities that endeared him in the hearts of those who knew him. He was forceful, yet gentle, an idealist, yet never losing sight of the practical. He was kind, understanding and, above all, magnanimous.

ANTOINETTE L. HERRMANN, DeWitt Clinton High School

* * * *

Of the multitude of persons who feel a deep sense of loss in the death of a friend and leader, I doubt if any one owes a deeper debt of gratitude than I. When I came to New York twenty-three years ago, the name of Lawrence A. Wilkins meant to me the author of some textbooks I had studied in Ecuador. I went to call on him at "59th Street." Of the New York City system I knew less than nothing, but I thought it would be *amusing* to teach Spanish. Instead of smiling at my unsophistication, Mr. Wilkins guided me through the intricacies of the system until and after the day I retired from it. Spanish has lost a friend, and every teacher of language mourns the loss of a helpful and comprehending leader.

EDITH F. STAVER
Newtown High School
Chairman (Retired), Spanish Department

* * * *

As I look back over the many years that it was my privilege to know and work with Mr. Lawrence A. Wilkins, it is his human qualities even more than his academic that stand out in my memory.

Because he was always forthright and sincere, and possessed of a highly developed sense of honor and justice, his teachers knew exactly where he stood on the multitudinous questions that he was called upon to help them solve. Perhaps his most lovable quality was his child-like readiness to avow his own faults. "Yes, I guess I am too impulsive. I can't seem to help it; I wish I could."

BESSIE DAVIS WILSON Girls Commercial High School

* * * *

Through his active sponsorship and guidance of the Pan American student movement in our high schools since its inception in 1930, Mr. Wilkins became a leader in the effort toward a cultural rapprochement with the Other Americas for the purpose of building inter-American solidarity on the firm foundation of understanding among the peoples of our Hemisphere. His influence permeated the

entire field of Hispanic studies and educational activities in this country.

Lawrence A. Wilkins was indeed a builder of One World.

JOSHUA HOCHSTEIN Evander Childs High School

Evaluation in the Secondary Schools of New York City

A. H. LASS
J. WAYNE WRIGHTSTONE

There is nothing really new in all our contemporary talking and writing about evaluation—except a growing consciousness of the degree to which we are failing to measure the effectiveness of our educational program as it is revealed in the kind of human beings we are producing. Fundamentally, we are trying to do today with our newer techniques, and expanded objectives, what our predecessors tried to do with traditional techniques in appraising their limited objectives. We are trying to find out how close we are coming to the heart's desire, how much of our earnestly sought and passionately avowed objectives is really "getting over," is really making our pupils grow into the kind of human beings we want them to be. We are not, with all our new and refined techniques, looking for anything other than an answer to that perennially vexing question: Is our educational program succeeding?

What differentiates our present efforts to answer this question is the introduction of new evaluation techniques designed to measure the effectiveness of expanded objectives of the new curriculum. The introduction of these newer techniques into the evaluation program arises out of a recognition that the older traditonal techniques, useful for their limited purposes, are not suited for the measurement of the vital "intangibles" which play so important a part in our present program.

On June 23, 1944, the Curriculum Council of the Board of Education appointed an Evaluation Committee to study the present practices prevailing in the evaluation programs of our schools with a view to pooling findings and enunciating a comprehensive, fully integrated evaluation program.

The following reports by Hymen Alpern and Benjamin Fox

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summarize the results of the first exploratory questionnaire that went out to all the academic and vocational high schools in the city. (Other reports on the junior high and elementary schools will shortly be published in these columns.)

The purpose of this first study was to ascertain the kind and scope of present evaluation practices in our secondary schools. Each school, in addition, was urged to comment on its own program and to submit suggestions for improvement of evaluation procedures throughout the city.

Tentative though these first reports from the schools must inevitably be, they clearly reveal the following:

1. There is widespread diversity in actual evaluation practices ranging from the reasonably thorough effort at complete study of the individual child by every possible means, to the frankly traditional program hopelessly and not too unhappily mired in the past.
2. With very few exceptions, the schools feel that their present evaluation programs fall far short of even their minimum expectations.
3. The newer evaluation techniques are, for the most part, not being given a chance to demonstrate what they can contribute to the development of a more meaningful evaluation program. Apart from a wide and not always too critical acceptance of the short-answer objective-type examination, the schools show little oragnized awareness of the possibilities of the newer evaluation techniques for appraisal of interests, attitudes, aptitudes, critical thinking, and personal—social adaptability.
4. The schools are unanimous on one count—more clerical help is imperative if they are to expand their present programs.
5. There is a great need to educate teachers in the newer evaluation techniques.
6. Added consultation service and increased personnel are indicated to give central support and guidance to the schools and to man the expanded evaluation program that all the schools recognize as vital to their intelligent functioning.
7. Expanded budgetary provisions are needed for research; testing materials and psychological services are essential for the success of a comprehensive evaluation program.

Evaluation in the Academic High Schools of New York City*

HYMEN ALPERN, Evander Childs High School

The answers received from fifty-four academic high schools in reply to a questionnaire concerning evaluation practices indicated some diversity of interest and stress both in current practices and in desirable changes in the purposes, instruments, and procedures of evaluation. Some of the comments were highly practical. They recognized the necessity for some sort of implementation, by way of standardized tests, records, guidance, and other means, in evaluating the individual school's effectiveness in character training and vocational preparation. But they pointed out certain features of the present high school organization which seriously militate against progress in this important function of education: over-sized classes, lack of clerical help, and an administrative indifference towards the rapid multiplication of forms, reports, and practices which constitute a serious threat to the teacher's effectiveness in any phase of his work. Others of the commentators prescinded from practical difficulties, describing some of the implements of evaluation now in use in their schools and expressing the pious hope that somehow the money should be secured to develop a worth-while program of evaluation throughout the school system.

The responses concerning the purpose of evaluation are typified in the following: *"The role of evaluation in any secondary school should be to determine as accurate, concise and usable a picture or pattern of the whole pupil as it is possible to obtain. This pattern should identify and measure the pupil's mental and physical strengths and weaknesses, his personality traits, his social adjustments, his general behavior problems and, so far as reasonable or possible, a prognostic estimate of his potentialities.*

"The foregoing is my opinion of what the role of evaluation in any secondary school program should be—including New York City. If, however, it is the intention of the question to elicit a statement as to the role actually played by evaluation in New York City, I am forced to say that I do not think we even approximate the ideal situation expressed above."

* A report prepared for the Evaluation Committee of the Curriculum Council. Albert J. Levine, Joseph Sexton, Milton Youngwood assisted in the preparation of the report.

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METHODS OF EVALUATION

Evaluation is carried on throughout the academic high schools by means of testing and records. There seems to be a definite doubt about the effectiveness of achievement tests designed for large masses of pupils, such as Regents and citywide tests, and even uniform term examinations administered in the school. Achievement tests, adequately supervised, composed and administered by the teacher at the end of a particular unit of study, seem to be preferred. Standardized tests, especially intelligence and reading tests, are commonly used for grouping and record profile. Both the short-answer test and the essay type are recognized as useful achievement and diagnostic instruments, the former especially effective to measure factual learning over a wide area, the latter an effective measure of judgment and appreciation.

Records, as implements of evaluation, fall into two categories: measurements of pupil achievement and guides to modification of pupils' programs in subject fields, and character profiles. Doubt is expressed about the effectiveness of standardized testing in the character area; more faith is evinced in teacher judgment based on intimate contact with the pupil in class and extra-class situations. The cumulative record in both subject and character areas is an established and working instrument of evaluation throughout the academic high schools. Teachers accept it as an adequate reflection of success or failure in the accomplishment of aims. They fear, however, that innovation without replacement of detail will result in nullifying the effectiveness of the cumulative record.

Among other implements of evaluation, mentioned by a comparatively few of the high schools responding to the questionnaire, were centrally functioning guidance committees, grade advisers, and special faculty committees organized for the solution of school problems within certain limited areas.

A number of schools regard extra-curricular activities, clubs, newspaper and magazine staffs, assemblies, arista, school dances, athletic events as excellent areas in which to observe success or failure in reaching important objectives.

Many reports point out that evaluation should be a constant, dynamic process in which tests and records play an important, but not a dominant, role. Supervisors, teachers, and pupils should be aware of the purposes of education and participate actively and constantly

in evaluating the means adopted to accomplish those purposes. The supervisor is important as leader and coordinator. The teacher should be encouraged to consider and comment upon the curriculum; to propose changes; to examine and to recommend changes in extra-department procedures, traffic, study halls, assemblies. Pupils should be given every reasonable opportunity to assist in evaluation through the Arista, G. O. Council, and committees formed for other specific purposes.

TYPES OF PUPIL RECORDS

A study was made of the responses to the questionnaire on types of pupil records kept. Reference is here made to those forms and records used in some of the schools which may be of interest to many other schools. An examination of the replies disclosed that some types of records to which the questionnaire referred were not in use in a large number of the high schools. These schools may possibly employ such records under different terminology. More complete reference is made to those items in the pages that follow.

Although organization and bookkeeping are essential factors in educational recording, the basic reason for records is their value for a more intelligent dealing with students under our guidance. This broader viewpoint has been kept in mind in analyzing and interpreting the responses to the questionnaire, and in examining the literature on the subject.

CUMULATIVE PERMANENT RECORD. The continuous, cumulative permanent record is the foundation of the system of recording subjective and objective information about individual pupils in the academic high schools of New York City. A standard form for permanent record has been in general use since 1939. The major concern of the form is with achievement, but provision has been made for recording growth and development of character, health service, special interests and extracurricular activities.

A six-year permanent record card in use at the Central High School of Cleveland, Ohio, stresses personality analysis to a greater extent than the New York City form, and permits favorable or unfavorable record of fifteen characteristics. The card also includes a home-environment record with information about the child's parents and home relationship, including the education of members of the family, facts which do not usually appear on the records of New

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York City high schools, except informally in cumulative envelopes or folders, or in private files.

PROFILE TYPE OF RECORD FORM. The permanent record of the future may include a more graphic presentation of evaluation. The term, *Profile Chart*, has been commonly used to designate a graphical representation of scores made by pupils on various parts of certain achievement, intelligence and personality tests. As applied to school records, the term may be used in two senses. In one use of the term, a single picture of the pupil is portrayed. A number of measures, such as final class marks, percentile ranks or grades on standard or uniform tests in a number of different subjects or abilities, are recorded as points on parallel lines on the form for a given pupil. The points are then joined to make the profile for that pupil. This type of profile is helpful towards an understanding of the pupil's scholastic strengths and weaknesses.

Another type of profile chart in connection with school records is that which graphs the education of the pupil over a period of years. The ranks, grades or test results are similarly used in determining the location of points on the parallel lines. This record may be used in comparing the results obtained by the pupil with those of his classmates, and in addition will show changes and trends in the phases of his scholarship or his education which have been evaluated during successive terms, or years. This type of record has been developed by the American Council on Education and has been used as adapted by the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Learning in its investigations. It has also been found helpful to set guidance data in graphic form on the permanent record sheet, in order that such data might be made more meaningful. Students in Philadelphia junior high schools have been taught to prepare profile charts as part of a citywide self-appraisal program. The profile reveals a cross section of aptitudes and interests of the pupil, as shown by the results of standard tests.

CUMULATIVE FOLDER. The purpose of the individual cumulative envelope or folder is to supplement the permanent record with reference matter too voluminous or too informal for that record. The standard form of permanent record has space for listing items that may be placed in the auxiliary source of information concerning the student. These envelopes or folders are often arranged according to official or home-room classes, and it is usually the duty of the home-room teacher to keep them up to date.

One school has for each pupil a folder which contains:

a. Cumulative record of absence and lateness
b. Record of interviews with pupil and parents
c. Vocational questionnaire
d. Good and poor citizenship citations
e. Notices concerning failures, and the follow up record
f. Any special reports not of a confidential nature which shed light upon the pupil

For General Course students, the same school uses the folder to include in addition to the above:

a. Interview sheet filled out by home-room teacher in third term
b. Informal sketch of pupil written at end of term by home-room teacher
c. Questionnaire filled out by girl
d. Re-evaluation of informal sketch referred to in "b" by indicating changes in red

PRIVATE FILES. Many guidance counsellors and deans have private files of information about the pupils whom they are counselling. The confidential material which is placed in these files is both informal and unofficial, and is not accessible to the entire faculty. Reference may be made in the cumulative folder to specific material kept in the private file. Private files contain memoranda of any serious charge against a student, such as reflections upon his honesty or his morality. "Known to Adviser," at one school, refers to whatever a counsellor or adviser at the school believes too personal in nature to be part of a public record.

DEPARTMENTAL CONTINUOUS PERMANENT RECORD. Subject departments have generally found that a more satisfactory evaluation of pupil activity can be secured when a departmental continuous and cumulative permanent record is kept, which is readily accessible to both chairman and teacher.

This card or sheet usually contains a term-by-term record of the pupil's achievement, his teachers' names and specific data about scholarship, outstanding physical characteristics and personality traits, and any other information which the department believes will aid in understanding the individual, without an excessive increase in clerical work. Although this record may be to some extent a duplication of the main office permanent record, its flexibility of form

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and content, and departmental control have been generally found to compensate the teachers for the additional clerical work involved.

Departmental continuous records are of increased value when used for diagnostic purposes, carrying notation of the pupils' weaknesses in specific steps, topics or phases of the subject, in order that they may be corrected as the pupil advances to higher grades of work in the department. In this manner the record serves to integrate the work the pupil in that subject area throughout his entire high school career.

English and speech departments have made effective use of the departmental continuous record card, especially for diagnostic and remedial purposes. The form in use at one school contains a complete analysis of each pupil's speech during his four years at the school. The card makes provision for evaluating "Speech Power" (effectiveness as a speaker), and "Speech Pattern" (ability to speak English correctly). If, at the end of the sixth term, the pupil has not made sufficient progress in eliminating the errors listed by the teachers of the first six terms, he is programmed to a special class where intensive work is done before he can qualify for his final term in English.

One cumulative departmental record has been employed for the past ten years by one art department. This record shows only the final grade for the term, but contains semi-annual information on more than seventy-five characteristics that make up the personality of the pupil. The main elements of this searching analysis are grouped about physical characteristics, social characteristics and workmanship.

A cumulative individual record for "English Composition—Diagnosis of Error," used by one English Department, might aid in eliminating a great many of twenty-five fundamental errors made by students in composition. An English Composition Corrective Chart might be placed on the outside of a current departmental individual envelope. The weaknesses of the past term can be carried forward for follow-up.

The records of student progress that are kept by subject departments are concerned mostly with achievement, although many record other phases of evaluation. Results are shown graphically in the mathematics, commercial and science departments, to a much greater extent than in other subject fields. Art and commercial departments,

more than other groups, appear to keep information on work experience and post-graduation activities of pupils.

A report on the pupil's learning efficiency in Spanish calls for judgment on nineteen phases of mastery and interest in the subject, ranging from vocabulary to club work, with columns for rating each phase *very poor, poor, fair, good* and ***excellent.***

INFORMAL RECORDS. A formal record in itself may not tell enough about a student. Educators have learned that the record of mastered knowledge should be supplemented at every turn by the repeatedly verified observations of skilled teachers on aspects of the students' behavior which cannot be revealed by test or grades. The formal record may be supplemented either by the individual report, covering a special situation, or by a carefully planned system of observation and comment, such as is employed in the anecdotal method.

Much diversity necessarily exists in the form and type of special reports concerning individual students which are received by the school administration, the guidance department, the subject department, or the teacher. Many schools have on record case histories dealing with a particular incident or problem. These reports are more often concerned with achievement and personality traits than aptitudes or interests. The schools often receive reports from social agencies, a source of information which yields much data not easily procured elsewhere about the pupil's environment.

ANECDOTAL METHOD. Most of the information secured from individual reports is sporadic and not coordinated to follow the pupil through his entire high school career. Such a running account may be secured by the anecdotal method of evaluating pupil activity.

An anecdotal record is described as an objective description of a significant occurrence or episode in the life of the pupil. Slips or cards containing this record may be deposited at the school office, from which they are distributed according to the plan adopted. This procedure tends to make teachers more observant and to secure a better understanding of individual students. A distinctive characteristic is that it endeavors to portray phases of personality and character that are often more subtle and perhaps more significant than can be shown on a more formal record.

One high school has a mimeographed form to be placed in its

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cumulative record file, which seeks information on appearance, attitude toward work, personality and character traits, special ability or specific weakness. The other side of the form is available for additional remarks on a specific activity or incident that may reveal character, unusual behavior, special ability, and the like, such as may have occurred in the classroom or in an extra-curricular activity.

THE BEHAVIOR JOURNAL. The teacher need not be as objective and terse in material for a behavior journal, as is desirable in an anecdotal record. Individual folders contain informal narratives or character sketches, without the restrictions of most other methods of evaluation. If the anecdotal method, or the behavior journal, is to be effective, reports must be submitted systematically, following a well supervised plan.

CHARTS, TABLES, GRAPHS. Abundant use of charts, tables and graphs is reported by many schools. The secretarial department of one school employs these devices generously in the recording of pupils' achievement by both teachers and by the pupils themselves. A "speed chart" is made and kept by the pupils, indicating the speed obtained on a fifteen-minute speed test. The student watches his daily growth in accuracy and speed in an "individual perfect-line chart." He diagnoses his own errors and checks improvement by a "daily error analysis" chart. In addition, charts are kept for results in "timed accuracy-copying tests." Teachers also keep graphic class records of test results. They detect and list the causes of errors on a "technique analysis" chart.

The regular use of charts, such as the following, is reported by a secretarial studies department:

1. Individual shorthand reading-rate charts, showing a day-by-day schedule of the number of words per minute read by each pupil each day.
2. A chart indicating increase in speed on copy tests.
3. A wall chart showing the number of letters satisfactorily completed by each pupil in typewriting.

The same department uses graphs to picture the progress of a class as well as the improvement of its individual students.

A mathematics department graphs arithmetic scores to diagnose aid in remedial work. Graphs of scholastic achievement show intra-department weaknesses and strengths.

A unique but vivid tool for presenting the results of evaluation has been devised in the form of a thermometer by the Cooperative

Study of Secondary School Standards. Educational temperatures were found for the numerous aspects of education as applied to particular schools. This medium of expression may arouse a lively interest on the part of students who would see their individual characteristics and accomplishments so graphically measured and compared to those of their classmates.

PUPIL LOGS. The pupil log, or diary, is the pupil's own record of his educational development. At one school, logs are kept by secretarial training students in the form of radio log sheets to encourage the taking of dictation of a variety of voices; and in the form of work-time sheets to get a pattern of the individual students' work over the period of the week. In some business training classes, pupils are asked to keep a log of the day's or week's expenditures of time and money; the results then serve as a basis for the preparation of a budget of their allotment of time or money. Failing students might be asked to keep diaries for a specified period, so that their advisers could better understand the causes of their difficulties.

WORK OR JOB-EXPERIENCE RECORDS. Records of work or job experience are kept in schools to a varying extent, depending in part upon the nature of the curricula offered at the school. A form used by one school asks business firms employing its pupils to rate the pupils on six attributes, and in addition, to suggest what the school can teach the worker so that he can do a better job, and to describe any procedure or routine which might well be included in school instruction.

POST SCHOLASTIC RECORD. Well organized follow-up studies of drop-outs and graduates should be made either by the school itself or in cooperation with some other agency. Several New York City academic high schools report that they keep a record of activities of their pupils after they leave school.

One school sends a detailed questionnaire to the members of each class several months after graduation. Pupils are acquainted with the purposes and content of this questionnaire while still at school. Data received yield information on what the students are doing in business, or the field of higher education. By means of the survey, the graduates are enabled to evaluate their own high school education and to aid the school in judging the adequacy of its curricula.

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A less formal approach is made in the appeal incorporated in the Senior Yearbook of another school, in which the alumni are asked to communicate with the school five years after graduation and answer specific questions on the work they have done and how their high school career has prepared them for that work. A similar plan has been in use at other schools.

A follow-up study, to be most successful, should begin with the acquisition of pertinent data while the individual is still at school. In the follow-up studies of the Bureau of Guidance of the New York State Education Department, the first section of the work, completed at school, makes available information concerning age at leaving school, grade completed, sex, major and minor subject courses race, I. Q., shop courses taken, and extracurricular activities. The counsellor punches holes in the appropriate spaces on the edge of the card that has been filled out, to give speed in sorting. Important findings may be reached by comparing these records with the responses to the follow-up of pupils after they have left school.

GUIDANCE RECORDS. A variety of form and records are in use in the guidance departments of the high schools, but these records are often independent and supplemental to the system centered about the official main office permanent record.

Environment receives little attention on official record, but greater notice is given to that influence by guidance departments. A "Counseling Work Sheet" in use at one school seeks the facts, and the treatment, in the following problem areas:

a. Family and Home—
   Parents, Family Relationships, Economic Status
b. Environmental and Social—
   School Interests, Out-of-School Interests, Friends, Recreation, Vocational Plans
c. Physical and Mental—
   Present Health, Past Serious Illnesses, Disabilities, Abilities, Emotional Stability, Attitudes, Habits.

An individual guidance record, in the form of a booklet which is kept by student and adviser, was prepared by Harold D. Richardson for the Deerfield-Shields (Ill.) High Schools. The booklet includes a record of health, interests and activities, personality and character ratings, educational guidance, scholastic achievement, occupational and college guidance. Although most of the data are placed in the booklet by the adviser, each section is preceded by a statement addressed to the student so as to arouse his interest in his plans and his progress.

An ingenious device prepared by a teacher at one of our schools permits students to plan their programs and keep their own record of courses and requirements, and enjoy doing so. A cardboard dial is rotated until an arrow points to the desired grade. The normal program for that grade then appears in windows cut out of the cardboard. Provision is made on the back of the card for keeping an inventory of courses passed and to be taken in order to meet requirements for graduation.

PROGRESS CARD. In order to facilitate planning of the high school program of subjects for the individual pupil, a Progress Card or Progress Sheet has been found to be practical in some schools. The form lists required and elective subjects and sequences which the pupil has taken and which he plans to take while he is attending school. It is passed on when the home-room teacher is changed, so that it always contains his past record, his present program, his plans for the remainder of his secondary school career and his aspirations after he leaves school.

The Progress Card has been found to be of great help in educationally and vocationally guiding the pupil in schools in which it is used. Because of its cumulative nature, it may eliminate the need of periodic preparations of a term plan card for each pupil.

PERSONALITY ANALYSIS. The growing concern exhibited by the high schools for improved evaluation of the "intangibles" among educational outcomes is evidenced in a diversity of records showing analysis of student character and personality, and their development. Many of these forms are used by the administrative office, guidance division and subject departments in addition to the summary provided in the standard cumulative permanent record. Some of the analyses contain distinctions fine enough to permit appraisal along a scale of five possible shades of a particular element of personality.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The following observations and recommendations are drawn partly from the staffs of the academic high schools and partly from the literature on the subject.

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The ideal concept of evaluation calls not only for the utilization of the best instruments of appraisal but also for close observation of the classroom teacher day by day and the development of the greatest possible knowledge and understanding of the individual pupils. Evaluation instruments should be used not only for measuring accretions of knowledge and proficiency in the use of skills but also for the important "intangibles" or by-products—attitudes, character, habits, qualities, power, appreciation, personality, interests, adaptability, social sensitivity, critical thinking, self-direction, etc. To be sure, evaluation instruments for measuring these intangible outcomes of the educative process are as inadequate as the available techniques and materials for teaching, but they are improving together. *We must not neglect important objectives merely because their attainment cannot now be readily measured by objective tests.* Where scientific tests are not available, reliance can be placed upon subjective qualitative judgments made by several competent persons and pooled at one time, or by a single qualified person over relatively long periods of time. Furthermore, teachers should be encouraged to develop home-made vehicles of appraisal and to try out new tests devised by others.

An evaluation program should aim not only at measuring and inducing pupil growth but also at providing an opportunity for continued teacher education. Teachers, as well as administrators, specialists and pupils should participate as far as possible in the cooperative construction of instruments of evaluation and forms for records and reports. In order to do so intelligently and effectively teachers should be given expert in-service training in the techniques involved and should work under the guidance either of a licensee in the field of evaluation assigned to each school or of a committee of specially qualified colleagues. General faculty conferences and group discussions on evaluation will help teachers keep before them the school's major objectives to which all testing is to be related and the necessity of considering the whole child as the subject of study.

Not only should a testing program be a cooperative effort within the school, but it *should also extend out to other schools within the school system for the pooling of information and studying of comparative data on comparable groups.* Reference to national norms might be illuminating. Efforts should be made to secure the cooperation of pupils with regard to the value of their various educational

contacts in school, their reactions to the educative influences, their extra-school activities and their post-graduate experiences. Self-evaluation might consist of the evaluation by the individual pupil of his own personal achievement or the evaluation by the class of its group activities.

It goes without saying that *no single testing instrument or technique is adequate to test the total development of a pupil nor can a single mark indicate progress toward all objectives.* Pupil progress must be reported in terms of separate achievements. Batteries of tests variously constructed—standardized and published; non-standardized and teacher made; pupil constructed; written and oral; subjective and objective; impressionistic and exact; formal and informal—all may serve as useful material for evaluation. The selection will depend upon the appropriateness of the instrument for the kind of behavior to be appraised.

Moreover, *evaluations and records should not be limited to the conventional subjects of the curriculum*—but should embrace also the extra-curriculum, guidance, library, service, inter-group living programs, assemblies, etc.

The evaluation program should not exceed the practical school uses that can be made of the data that are attained. Moreover, it is important that tests should reflect in form and substance current practice in the classroom. For example, if, in a foreign language class, 80% of the class time is spent in reading for comprehension, there is no point in giving a test 80% of which consists of isolated vocabulary, grammatical points, verb forms, and translation into the foreign language.

The testing process does not end with the rating of the papers. Since one of the chief purposes of testing is to diagnose deficiencies and locate them for definite remedial exercises, we should make a careful analysis of the result by tabulating the marks for all different test items, and studying them. It is also desirable to plot graphs of the distribution of marks and to transmute original scores to absolute marks by means of the Normal Curve of Distribution or by a statistically determined departmental probability curve. These statistical studies, however, should not be used to determine grades, but to aid the teacher in grading fairly.

Testing may be used as a guide for improving instruction. Test results can be analyzed for indications of strength and weakness and of modification that should be made in subject matter and

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methods. Tests may be used as a direct aid in identifying specific difficulties and individual deficiencies and locating them for remedial teaching. *"How much a child has learned,"* says Terman, *"is of significance only as far as it throws light on his ability to learn more."*

Reporting, like testing, might well be on a cooperative basis, with the high school exchanging significant data with the lower school, the college and the home. Satisfactory use has been made of a "Co-operative Record Booklet" containing comments of pupils, teachers and parents. "Profile Charts" have been used to promote a realistic self-appraisal program of guidance by having pupils themselves record and interpret results of the inventories of aptitude, interests, and social adjustment after a coordination of the efforts of home-room teachers, guidance counsellors, and parents.

Records should be kept not only of the pupil's experience up to the time of his departure from our jurisdiction but also wherever possible of his successes and failures in higher schools, employment, and life.

Evaluation should not be regarded as the end of a process but the means to an end—growth. Definite use should be made of evaluations and records for the purposes of diagnosis, guidance, remedial work and curriculum improvement. They should be studied and interpreted in the light of the guiding purposes of the school and with full regard for the student's individuality. The objectives of the school and the growth of the individual student in terms of these objectives should be considered patiently and hopefully as a long-range program, as progress toward an ideal but attainable goal to be realized with the progressive improvement of controlling factors such as teaching load, facilities, equipment, materials, clerical assistance, psychiatric and psychological service.

Evaluation in the Vocational High Schools*

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* A report prepared for the Evaluation Committee of the Curriculum Council. Requests for copies of the various forms submitted by the schools should be addressed to Mr. Benjamin Fox, Alexander Hamilton High School.

The following, a survey of evaluation procedures in our vocational high schools, was conducted by means of a questionnaire consisting of check sheets and requests for opinions and illustrative data. The material received was gratifying, not only for the mass of data, but also for the obvious awareness by supervisors of the need for evaluation procedures.

The vocational high schools are a product of rapid growth and continual change. They are characterized by the multiplicity of courses and wide range of pupil abilities. During the period of rapid growth, these schools were hampered by the lack of adequate teaching and supervisory personnel, as well as by the paucity of buildings, equipment, and teaching materials. Moreover, the vocational high school curriculum, more so than curricula in other types of schools, is often the focal point for the expression of conflicting educational philosophies.

It is understandable that, when the attention of supervisors and administrators is largely concentrated on organization, teaching personnel, teaching techniques and essential physical and instructional facilities, the development of evaluation procedures, particularly in their more objective phases, will lag. Evaluation is in one respect the testing of the product of educational aims, procedures, and outcomes.

The vocational high schools have now arrived at a point in their development where "stock taking" is essential in order to measure the effectiveness of their program.

The survey indicates that there are some practices that are standardized for all vocational high schools, such as the use of the cumulative record card, medical examinations, and standardized reading tests. Some practices are general in all schools but not standardized, such as guidance, questionnaires, aptitude testing and uniform tests. Some procedures are characteristic of particular schools, such as the testing of prospective graduates by an advisory board and post-graduate evaluation of pupil progress in industry.

Pre-Admission Evaluation Procedures and Guidance

Pupil guidance has been a feature of the growth of vocational high schools. Guidance departments are an integral part of vocational high school organizations. The functions of these departments have been expanded continually. Since effective guidance upon admission of students requires evaluation procedures as a

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necessary counterpart, it follows that these procedures be administered through the guidance departments of the school. Because of the wide range of pupil abilities and the multiplicity of courses, evaluation of pupils' achievement, aptitudes, and interests takes on added importance upon admission if pupils are to be directed toward courses and activities that will meet their needs best.

Prior to admission, the elementary school cumulative record card and the cumulative health card are submitted to the vocational high schools. It is a general practice in most schools to interview prospective pupils and have them fill out a guidance questionnaire.

If personal interviews are not feasible at that time, they are held soon after admission. A feature of pre-admission procedure in all vocational high schools is the requirement that pupils must have a medical examination just prior to admission. This practice is now being extended to academic high schools. From these data the following estimates are gathered:

The pupil's I.Q.
Health characteristics
Achievement in lower schools
Conduct and personality
Regularity of attendance
Emotional characteristics
Special interests
Special disabilities

Usually, the previous school records give meagre information concerning the pupil's mechanical aptitude. Therefore, many schools provide, as a pre-admission procedure or soon after admission, mechanical aptitude tests. These may be the performance type or paper tests.

Many schools administer other objective standardized tests, such as reading and arithmetic tests, to verify the judgments and ratings on the record cards from previous schools. These tests form the basis for establishment of special remedial classes.

Pre-admission guidance is an important evaluation procedure in all vocational high schools.

Progress in School

From the data submitted, it appears that all vocational high schools are cognizant of the importance of evaluation procedures and are employing measuring techniques, devices, and instruments for

various phases of the school program. The various types of tests listed seem to be well distributed.

Standardized tests are used frequently by the guidance departments, administered school-wide, grade-wide, or individually. Much use is made of standardized reading and arithmetic tests for selection of pupils for remedial classes.

In those schools that have Regents classes, the Regents examinations offer a means of uniform testing.

All schools make continual use of teacher-made and department-made tests. These are of the subjective or objective type. From the samples submitted, it seems that the objective test is gaining in use.

In addition to general achievement tests much use is made of diagnostic tests, and some use of interest tests. Less numerous, however, are tests of social relationships and character.

In connection with evaluation procedures, mention should be made of the try-out shop cycle during the ninth year. This program is general in all vocational schools having a ninth year. Besides the concomitant value for general education that this program possesses, one of its aims is to form a judgment of a pupil's mechanical aptitude and interest by observing and recording for one full year a pupil's achievement and attitude toward various shop activities.

Perhaps the most significant feature in the development of evaluation procedures in the vocational high schools is the tests developed by individual schools for measuring achievement in special activities in which the schools specialize. With the exception of tests for mechanical aptitude, there are few published or standardized tests for achievement in shop work. Therefore most of these tests are teacher or department made. A brief sampling of these tests will give an indication of their types and scopes.

1. Safety Test for Shop Work
2. Picture Tests Used in Needle Trades
3. Short Answer Test in Aviation Work

A few schools have special testing procedures for achievement in shop work for prospective graduates. One school requires every candidate for graduation to complete a special project in his senior year. This is judged by a committee of teachers. In another school, every prospective graduate is interviewed by the school's advisory committee consisting of persons who are in the industry.

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Types of Records Kept

Two sets of continuous cumulative records are kept for every pupil in the vocational high schools.

I. *Cumulative Record Envelope*

This envelope contains:

1. The cumulative scholastic records from elementary and junior high school
2. Guidance questionnaire (for schools which follow this procedure)
3. The cumulative record card for the vocational high school
4. Other pertinent data, such as case histories, reports from outside agencies, disciplinary cards, etc.

II. *Cumulative Health Folder*

This envelope contains the:

1. Cumulative health card for the lower schools
2. Cumulative health record for the vocational high schools
3. Other pertinent records pertaining to student's health such as doctor's certificates, record of medical examination by outside agencies, etc.
4. A record on the face of the envelope consisting of a summary of examinations, inspections, interviews, etc.

The cumulative record contains the scholastic record of the pupil including final class and test marks, ratings on Regents examinations, ratings on standardized tests for I.Q., mechanical aptitude, reading and arithmetic abilities, and others. Teacher judgments of personality traits and anecdotal records are made for each term. The card also contains notations of honors, awards, attendance records and other significant information. It is a term-by-term summary of the pupil's performance in school. This form is now standardized for all high schools in the city. Taken together with other pertinent data in the cumulative folder and studied in conjunction with the health records, these records portray the capabilities, character, personality and achievement of the pupil.

These cumulative summary records are the result of numerous current records kept by teachers, chairmen, counselors, and administrators. In addition to the customary roll books, Delaney card and progress records there are many unusual devices used by individual teachers such as shop-progress cards, logs, graphs and others.

Conclusion

The most frequent comment accompanying the reports from the vocational high schools in this survey were to the effect that there is need for further development and expansion of measuring techniques.

Specific recommendations are:

1. *Establishment of a central bureau which would give aid and direction to individual schools in measuring techniques*
2. *Expansion of guidance staffs with necessary assistance to take care of checking, recording and tabulating test data*
3. *Research in test construction for measuring the so-called intangibles, such as appreciations, human relationships, personality, etc.*
4. *In-service training for teachers in constructing and administering tests*
5. *Evaluation procedures to measure post-graduate progress and success*
6. *Greater budgetary provision for tests of all types*

From Battlefield to Classroom: The Demobilization of Teachers*

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Many social studies teachers from high schools and colleges of the United States have served in the armed forces of their country for three, four, and even five years. They have rendered outstanding service in the performance of their military duties, but they have been badly missed in the classrooms and lecture halls in which they taught in the years preceding the war. Now they are being demobilized from the armed forces. It is hoped that they will return to their classrooms in time to meet the great rush of students which is anticipated in the academic year 1946-1947, and in the years to follow.

TEACHER SHORTAGE. A number of leading educators fear that there will be a serious shortage of qualified social studies teachers during the next few years. Few college teachers have been trained during the years 1942-1945, and it may take several years more before the graduate schools of the leading universities are able to complete the training of more than a handful of teachers. The growing shortage of college teachers is duplicated by a shortage of high school teachers which has already become acute in many parts of the United States. It is probable that the shortage will grow

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worse before it can be remedied by the training of sufficient numbers of new teachers.

The shortage of teachers might not become too acute if all the former teachers and professors now in the armed forces or in specialized war work could or would return to their classrooms in the near future. It is probable that the majority will return, but many fine teachers may remain in the armed forces or in civilian agencies charged with the responsibilities of administering the vast demobilization and reconversion plans of the federal government.

A number of teachers and scholars are now playing a vital part in the administration of occupied areas of Germany and Japan. Patriotic motives or the demands of military necessity may keep them at their posts for some time. A number of social studies instructors are engaged in teaching and research programs sponsored by the War and Navy departments, and some scores of their colleagues are employed in very important research jobs in the Department of State. Considerable numbers of college professors and high school teachers of history, geography, and related subjects are employed by the new branches of the Department of State that have been formed out of the recently disbanded office of Strategic Services and office of War Information.

DEMOBILIZATION. The temporary or permanent loss of teachers to the various military and civilian teaching, research and intelligence agencies of the federal government is likely to be a very serious one to the already weakened ranks of the teaching profession. It must be emphasized, however, that the majority of teachers who were absent from their classrooms during the war are expected to return to them very shortly. The armed forces are being demobilized very rapidly. Many teachers have already doffed their uniforms in time to teach in the fall of 1945. Many more will return in time to teach next spring. A large part of the remainder will undoubtedly be separated from the services in time to teach in the fall of 1946.

Most of the teachers who have been released from the armed services were released because they had accumulated enough points under the adjusted service rating systems of the Army and Navy to qualify for honorable discharges. Some were discharged ahead of their turn in the demobilization schedule, however, under special regulations permitting separation from the services "for convenience of the government, in the national interest." A few teachers were

discharged before V-J Day in order to return to their campuses, while a greater number have been discharged to return to their teaching duties since the surrender of Japan. The War and Navy departments have been very sparing in granting special discharges to teachers, however, so that there can be no charge from any quarter that teachers are being treated as a specially privileged class during the demobilization. Coal miners, railroad workers, and other types of specialized workers are being granted discharges in the national interest more readily than are teachers. Teachers are being released only when repeatedly and urgently requested by supervisors and presidents of their schools and colleges. Even then, the discharge requests are likely to be turned down by the military authorities unless it is clearly apparent that the continued absence of the teacher will cripple the teaching program at his school or college or will make it impossible to implement properly the program for training and counseling returning veterans.

NEW ENTHUSIASM. The teachers who are being demobilized from the armed forces may be expected to bring great enthusiasm and a freshness of approach to their classrooms when they return to them. They have had their fill of war, and they will certainly return to peaceful pursuits with zest. They have traveled far and learned much during their years with the colors. Many of them have held specialized teaching, research or intelligence assignments during their tours of military duty. They may have to scrap most of the high-pressure, speed-up methods of instruction which they have learned in the Army and Navy, but a certain percentage—let us hope a large one—of their teaching and research experience in the armed forces should prove useful to them in civilian life.

NOT A LOSS. Some educators hold the view that the years which thousands of our social studies teachers have spent in the armed services may be regarded as almost a total loss to the teaching profession. It is the writer's belief that such a view is altogether too narrow. Many of the teachers in the ranks of the Army and Navy have spent months, even years, teaching air cadets, giving instruction to illiterate soldiers, teaching American history and institutions to prisoners of war, translating and studying captured documents, or carrying out intensive research on the geography, economics, and social and political structure of Germany and Japan. Hundreds of

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instructors, many of them social studies teachers, have been employed in the training of air cadets. Several hundred teachers and scholars have been drawn from their civilian occupations or detached from the Army and Navy to carry on research and intelligence work for the Office of Strategic Services. Many of their colleagues have been employed in specialized assignments with the Department of State, the Office of War Information, Military Intelligence, Naval Intelligence, and the Army's Counter Intelligence Corps. The teachers and scholars who have been employed in teaching, research, and intelligence assignments have been able to add greatly to their knowledge of teaching and research methods, as well as to their understanding of people and of the world's problems. Their military and war service careers may be regarded in many ways as being a part of their professional training. They have had new and broadening experiences and they should prove to be better teachers in the years to come because of their war-time experiences.

GROWTH IN COMBAT. Many teachers have experienced front-line combat. Some have been machine gunners, artillerymen, or crewmen of armored vehicles, while others have flown over Berlin and Tokyo; still others have manned the decks of warships off Okinawa. At least one Ph.D. in history has experienced the sinking of his ship as the result of kamikaze attack, while another holder of the same degree had to abandon a flaming B-29 bomber in the Pacific Ocean after a bombing mission against Tokyo. Such experiences are not to be recommended as part of the training curriculum for teachers of social studies, but the men who have had these experiences may become better teachers as a result of them. It should not surprise us to find that battle-tested veterans possess greater maturity and deeper insight into human nature than do many of their contemporaries who have never been through combat action.

SHORTAGE WILL CONTINUE. The return of war veterans to the various teaching staffs will not alleviate fully the shortages of personnel in the teaching profession, but it should help to fill some of the most serious gaps. There will probably be a more or less severe shortage of qualified teachers for a number of years, however. Some educators believe that it will be impossible to train adequate numbers of teachers for the next four years because of the small numbers of students entering colleges and universities during

the years 1942-1945. It may not be until 1949 or 1950 that enough students will be graduating from college to fill the teacher-training programs of many of our leading universities.

VETERANS WILL CONTRIBUTE. Severe strains may be thrown upon the faculties of high schools and colleges alike until the present and anticipated shortage of teachers has come to an end, but the schools and colleges can count on the returning servicemen and servicewomen of their teaching staffs to meet the test of heavy teaching burdens with courage and resourcefulness. The veterans, products of a generation which was once thought to have been "too soft," have shown themselves to be of mighty sturdy fiber. They will return to their teaching responsibilities with sufficient vigor and enthusiasm to master the problems which will face them.

It is too soon to tell or to foresee the whole story of the return of teachers from military service and war work. The story will continue to unfold during the years of reconversion and peace ahead of us. When the story is finally told many years in the future, we may be sure that it will be a heartening one of improved teaching methods, of contributions to scholarship, and of distinguished public service.

Demilitarize the Returnee

SAMUEL D. McCLELLAND,* John Adams High School

The central anxiety of the peace is the fear that humanity will turn upon itself again. The atrocities we have known are unthinkable, but the atomic terrors are unknown, unimaginable. Power from the ultimate force in matter suggests finality in our decisions. Every mortal speaks for his life when he says: "We *must* do something."

For the first time Americans mean it when they say: "America must be *ready* to defend herself." Whether the atomic era makes

* Major McClelland went on active duty in August, 1941. After a year as Commander of a 90mm antiaircraft battery, he was for two years an instructor in the Tactics Department of the Antiaircraft Artillery School at Camp Davis, N. C. He then went to the ETO as Air Liaison Officer with the 103rd Infantry Division, and became divisional Information and Education Officer after VE-Day. He was returned to inactive duty as Major in the Air Corps on October 5, 1945.

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them obsolete or not, we want strong Armed Forces. For the first time we are beginning to take universal conscription seriously. We were caught unprepared in two great wars; we have had our last reprieve. We feel we must not be soft, but realistic, and, as civilians, ever ready for war. The citizen of the United States must militarize his outlook on the world, no matter how sanguine his hopes for the United Nations Organization.

Yet there is a great segment of our national life in which the opposite tendency, demilitarization, is important to our national strength and to the peace of the world. Our returning service men must, in great measure, renounce what war has trained into them.

A GREAT GULF. The ex-soldier or sailor who takes his seat in a high school class is conscious of a great deal more than his extra years. A gulf of almost incredible experiences make the room seem small, strange and unfamiliar. Important to him and to his fellows are the war-taught habits, attitudes and modes of response of which he may not be explicitly aware.

The same is true of the returned teacher, but with an importance multiplied. His influence upon his students, and in formulating in his share and measure the policies of the educational system, will have an effect widespread and lasting far into the future. Depending upon the nature and completeness of his adjustment now will be the character of his principles and methods when the war experiences have faded to dim memory. To what extent will he be the practitioner and advocate of military method?

MILITARY LIFE. Military command is authoritarian and dictatorial. Training begins by hammering into submisson any individuality that is inclined to be troublesome. Orders, wise or stupid, must be obeyed. Indeed, it is recognized that the acme of training in this respect is instant obedience without any reflection whatsoever. Such a frame of mind can save lives when seconds count. Many of our officers were awe-struck by the success the Wehrmacht and the S.S. had achieved in instilling this driving, automatic response.

Not only is obedience required, but disapproval of any regulation is bad soldiering. If the objections are strong enough, or logical enough, to be disrupting, punishment is soon forthcoming. Usually the griping can be overlooked, and the individual may receive no

more than a card requesting him to "see the Chaplain." Military life has no methods of self-criticism or correction from within, except as command deigns to take notice and alter orders. The army and navy have benefited from the criticism of the ranks and ratings, but it was the occasional wisdom of commanders, and not the result of any established process.

In the Officer Candidate Schools, many intelligent young men who easily mastered the course content were not commisioned because of personality deficiencies. (This was especially true when the need for new second lieutenants was not pressing). They lacked leadership. But the keystone of that leadership is the ability to accept arbitrary orders under conditions of physical and mental strain, transmit such orders, and get them obeyed in the same unquestioning manner.

Needless to say, there are no elective processes in the army. All positions and promotions are appointive. Indeed it is rather frightening to think what the result would be if several aspiring officers were running in an election for colonel of the regiment, or captain of the ship. Yet, even when the hard necessities of war reenforce the moral judgment, all in the Services have seen what a part personal preference and sycophantic methods can play in promotion. Indeed it is a great tribute to the American life from which the armed forces came that merit was rewarded as well as it was.

NOT THE CIVILIAN WAY. The use of authority unquestioned is a good way to run an army, but it is not a good way to live. Nor is it good for the nation's future or the peace of the world. Particularly is it something to consider in relation to universal conscription.

Anyone who has studied the problem will agree that technical military training is not possible in a year. Indeed General Marshall emphasized that the loss of technical personnel was one of the most disquieting factors in our rapid deployment. Basic training is all that can be given to the conscriptee, and the fundamental aim of that is to get him to act and think like a soldier. He will be told when to get up, and when to go to bed, how to tie his tie and make his bed. He will do menial tasks without complaint, and the child-like responses demanded of the young man *he will be expected to retain as a permanent mold of thought*. Otherwise, his basic training will have been for nothing.

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We must realize that this repressive process is not merely a phase of the new conscription of young men. Several millions have already gone through years of it and have seen the necessity for it in the organized butchery of war. How much of small unit tactics resolved themselves into the Old Man's orders: "Get them going; keep them moving; push them ahead!"

RETRAINING NEEDED. The service men going back to the job of U. S. Citizen must be provided with a careful transition from blind obedience to rational motive. Will some of them go to their labor unions, their veterans' organizations and political organizations retaining the old servility to power? Will they "buck" for the immediate material advantage, the way they used to buck for stripes, without questioning the "set-up," with ready acceptance of the chief? In the armed forces there was no other recourse. The American republic owes its continued existence to the truth that there is recourse, opposition and reform.

An equal danger of the transition is a reaction, extreme from compliance, which amounts to abandonment of the system in personal revolt. There is no desire for improvement by lawful process. The disgusted service man will go AWOL from this people's government, each to his own degree of rebellion. Some will find solace in contemptuously not voting. Others will refuse to join anything, or espouse the radical merely because it is radical. Some may even go into business with the souvenir Luger.

There have been not a few soldiers who said, (although, fortunately, rarely if ever put it into practice): "I'm going to shoot that so-and so, the first chance I get in combat." There was usually no other remedy to imagine for misused authority. It was take it, or else.

The returned soldier must be told, and convinced, that in America he need not take it, or revolt into the "else." The American way is to alter and perfect the authority and the organization through the democratic process. Especially must the young soldier come to know this.

BONUSES NO SOLUTION. It must certainly be said, however, that some of our legislators have not povided any shining beacon of the government of the Republic. Indeed there is another sensitive danger in the process of transition to peaceful life which our public

servants have characteristically aggravated. They talk constantly of rewards, promises, loans, preferences and bonuses.

The American soldier or sailor did not come home with his hand out! But there are many who seek his favor by promising to put things into his pocket. Meanwhile they aim to convince him and the rest of the country that he is owed these stipends.

There is a debt, but it is not in dollars. Such an attitude is perhaps the crowning insult to a returning army and navy. In what words can this be said to those who suffered, those who died? Payment has no meaning.

Certain legislation is necessary so that the nation can adjust its economy to give the serviceman a fair start. So is new labor legislation, new industrial and financial legislation required to achieve reconversion to peace. But we must convince the returnee to banish from his mind the conception that the citizen army to which he belonged now requires a cash tribute from the rest of the citizenry.

It but accentuates the need for national regret to note that many servicemen are now avaricious for all the money they can pry or wheedle from the national treasury. Have they not been schooled to it, since their return? The main right of the G. I. is the right to earn a living in the country he governs. Wise legislation, including monetary benefits, can assist him in his peculiar difficulties in attempting to do this. But the attitude that leads him to expect to receive gratuities can be a permanent cancer in national life. He should be encouraged not to degrade himself by being a bonus-hungry vote, pliable to the demagogue. There is no point in complaining about the chow any longer, when you provide your own.

His main reward should be his own quiet pride and self-respect, remaining when even the discharge buttons have vanished from the lapels. He handed the future a New World, and the Victory is priceless!

THE AIMS OF THE FIGHT. That he was fighting for a new world would, during most of the fighting time, have been news to him. Conspicuous in the American fighting man was his lack of a Cause. Part of the naturalness of heart which made him the world's best fighter was his lack of ideological convictions. He was happily free from propaganda, but sadly free from international and political information as well. There were, of course, studious exceptions, but for the average soldier, freedom was what he lacked, not

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what he was fighting for. He could say it quickly enough, but he did not feel it as reason for fighting.

Some gradually come to an understanding, watching the reactions of prisoners, the German and Japanese populace, the concentration camps, the displaced persons. But it was mainly after the war. When he heard of the atomic bomb, he began to think what might have happened to the world.

But for the most part, he was in the war because he had been drafted. Period. His magnificent courage was on a personal basis. He had seen a pal die, or wanted one to stay living. He could see the honor and unnoticed glory of steeling himself against animal flight and cowardice, and fighting it out. The enemy wasn't quitting and neither was he, and he fought to the death.

CITIZEN OF THE WORLD. As magnificent as he was, as an American of the future, *he needs a more rational basis for his part in governing his country. The ocean barriers are gone, and he is a citizen of the world.* He must be given an appetite to know the facts of international life, and work for its justice. He must have, and will need, the political orientation he did *Not* get as a soldier or sailor. In the world of the future, his unquestioning courage could be woefully misled.

The problem of lasting peace is the trembling worry of the world. But who is there who thinks that the next war will be perpetrated by the United States? The freedom we have nourished and now enjoy in its vigor we would freely grant to the world. Indeed we shall work to bring it to all, by striving for justice and charity which sustain it. If all the nations had the same clarity of purpose, or (to give them their due), had the strength to stand free and open, peace would be in safer eminence.

The American democracy, the original brand, has been burnt into humanity's understanding through long trials in many lands striving for our way of life. It requires an attitude that continually demands that authority render an account of its stewardship. America's young fighters learned the opposite of this in the armed forces. It depends on individual dignity and high ideals in the electorate. Bonus bargaining, and bonus demagoguery smear that. Without knowledge, the democratic process is an empty exercise, and prey to corruption. The armed forces never had time to remedy the politcal ignorance our national lethargy and isolationism had fostered.

We must not let the power of fear force the free mind into military submission. It is the danger of universal conscription, and the challenge in absorbing the returned service man. Unless he is free, constructive and informed, all progmatic planning will be empty. With all respect to the uniform he proudly takes off, he must say to his leaders and to the United Nations: *"You must work with me to produce a better world. I won't soldier for anyone."*

Building One World Through Education

ISIDOR L. GORDON, Stuyvesant High School

"The immediate, the greatest to us is the threat of disillusionment, . . . the danger of an insidious skepticism, . . . a loss of faith in the effectiveness of international cooperation. Such a loss would be dangerous at any time. In an atomic age it would be disastrous."

President Truman,
Navy Day Address, October 27, 1945

One contemplates with horror the apparent, if only incipient, drift into the acceptance of the idea of a third world war. The fact that certain articulate groups in the community anticipate such a catastrophe with a sort of sadistic glee should indicate to us that the wish may very well be the father to the thought. Whether they desire another world conflict merely to discredit the Roosevelt administration is difficult to determine. The fact is quite obvious, however, that this calculated or innocent cynicism and defeatism may result in a wreckage of the machinery of peace, the United Nations Organization, before it has had an opportunity to do its part for the preservation of our civilization. The price of indifference to this drift is too high. The responsibilty is everybody's if peace and security are to be our ultimate accomplishment.

OUR JOB. The community looks to the schools to elevate the level of morality, be it local, national, or international, through the inculcation of the proper attitudes, and development of those concepts and skills which should be the mainstay of our youth—the leaders

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of tomorrow. It is, therefore, incumbent upon us to assume our responsibilities which we have for so long claimed. We must raise the present level of discussion concerning the United Nations Organization to a degree commensurate with the dignity, if not sacredness, of its purpose. Our students look to us for a sanguine evaluation of UNO—we must give it to them. Anything else is playing the tune of the Pied Piper. No longer can we absolve ourselves by blaming the "wilful men" and the "reservationists." This time they came through. Who shall assume the leadership of the march towards proper understanding of international cooperation? The purveyors of hate, the blind partisans, or those to whom the community has entrusted the development of their most precious possession, the teachers?

UNO MUST NOT FAIL. What we can do to direct the tide of world events is limited in character but nonetheless essential in purpose. The United Nations Organization must be a success; anything else is too frightful to contemplate. Towards the achievement of this goal we must exert every possible ounce of our energies. Our immediate and specific aim should be the development of a feeling of its likely success in the minds and hearts of our pupils.

OUR CONTRIBUTION. Aware of the need of the students for a positive interest in UNO, Mr. Schoenberg, the principal, appointed a committee of teachers of the various subjects with Dr. Steinberg, the chairman of the Social Studies Department, as supervisor. Because of the writer's experience in the Army with exhibits along comparable lines, he was asked to assume active direction of the committee. The group was charged with the objective of drawing up a display which would achieve the following aims:

A. *Concept:* to broaden the students' knowledge of the efforts made, past and present, to achieve international cooperation
B. *Attitude:* a feeling of hope, not despair; active interest not apathy
C. *Skill:* to motivate creation of original projects
D. *Habit:* to stimulate wide reading and out-of-school discussion

The plan we worked out sought the accomplishment of the goals within the physical limitations of the building. It is offered to any school. It can with little difficulty be adapted to any building. In the hope of making the exhibit a real success, the laws of learning were used as guiding principles. For example, satisfaction of a felt need is met by stressing the results of UNO as life with peace and

security; pleasant learning conditions, by providing attractive displays in accordance with modern advertising precepts; repetition, by making the theme of each panel—peace and security.

THE EXHIBIT. The exhibit, which employs posters, cartoons, pamphlets and charts in profusion, covers the entire corridor of one floor, making it a living classroom. At one end of the hall is a 6-by-16 foot sign bordered with the flags of the nations, reading in 3-dimensional letters—UNITED NATIONS, ONE NATION, WITH LIBERTY AND JUSTICE FOR ALL. The word *nation* is crossed through and the word *world* is substituted. Thus, the one world concept is sharply emphasized.* Projecting from this sign is a three-foot globe. Below are two 4x6 pictures—one is titled *"that these dead shall not have died in vain"* and shows Allied soldiers arm in arm; the other bears the caption, *"that this world shall have a new birth of freedom"* and is a pictorial presentation of the operation of UNO. Along the walls are panels such as *"Blueprints of man's eternal search—peace and security."* This includes 2x2 photostatic facsimiles of the *Magna Carta, Declaration of Independence, Constitution of the United States, Declaration of the Rights of Man, Atlantic Charter,* and *Preamble to the United Nations Charter.* This should give students an historical perspective of the development and goals of international peace. The second panel is titled, *"We united for war; now we unite for peace and security."* For this we have smaller illustrated posters on the people, work and resources of the allies. All are built around the well known Covarrubias map of the United States. We felt that a firm basis for international cooperation was dependent upon a full understanding of the nature of the peoples with whom we are to work together. The third panel is in two parts, *"The architects of victory,"* with blow-ups of the conference at Yalta and Potsdam to cover one half. The other side is *"The architecture of peace and security."* Here are the fundamentals of peace in illustrated form. Included are the measures to prevent aggression, to control armaments, to provide justice, to establish economic and social collaboration, to set up colonial trusteeships, etc. The fourth panel really sets the theme for the display. It is built around a portrait of President F. D. Roosevelt flanked by posters illustrating how the ultimate outcomes of UNO are the Four

* Once again to emphasize the one world concept.

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Freedoms. As a summarizing idea there is a quotation from one of his addresses—*"Peace must be affirmatively fought for; it cannot just be wished for; it cannot just be waited for.* Another side of the wall is a display that may be considered as the assignment. There are some thirty-five pamphlets related to world peace and international good will. Included are the *United Nations Charter, The Bretton Woods Proposals, Towards a World of Plenty, Races of Mankind, They Got the Blame,* leaflets on Panama, Costa Rica, Mexico, etc.

The entire exhibit has been constructed on a comparatively substantial physical basis. As a result, despite the passage of thousands of boys through the corridor during the change of periods, no damage of any kind has been noticed. Not a little of this success has been due to its substantial construction and dignified approach. The boys have responded in kind by rising to the occasion. That fact can be taken as one indication of its sobering effect.

CORRIDOR CLASSES. To direct the students' thinking on the problem a program has been worked out whereby the members of the Social Studies Department and teachers of appropriate grades in the English Department conduct their classes for an entire day in the exhibit corridor. At least one or more additional classroom periods and homework assignments are devoted to reading and discussion of UNO. Part of the end-term examination will be devoted to it. To help provide a substantial basis for the patter phase of the program, hundreds, and in some cases, thousands, of duplicates of the pamphlets on display have been made available in the Social Studies Office. To date more than 10,000 pamphlets have been distributed. They vary in approach from the comic book type of illustration to full reports of the San Francisco Conference. The reading materials are on several levels of intelligence and intellectual development.

CARTOON CONTEST. In order to further the skills and stimulate thinking on one phase of international problems, a cartoon contest is in progress on *Atomic Energy and the United Nations.* One panel has been set aside for the display of the work of the participants. This is one of the most popular sections. Right now there is a lively dispute among the students as to which is the best cartoon.

A COMMUNITY PROJECT. The goals are enormous. We

could not afford to allow them to be dwarfed by our limitations. Accordingly, the project has been made not only school-wide but community-wide. It was felt that the exhibit was worth something approaching the efforts going into the selling of soft drinks or chewing gum. To accomplish this would require funds in amounts which are not readily available. The community responded magnificently. We owe thanks to the *Commission to Study the Organization of the Peace; United Nations Association; Associated American Artists; N. Y. Historical Society; Consolidated Edison Co., R. H. Macy Co., Radio City Display Corp.; National Labor Defense, Anti-Defamation League; Hurley Studios; Merit Display Corp., Metro Photo Service; Museum of Science and Industry; International Labor Defense; Herald Tribune, Brooklyn Eagle; French and British Information Services.* Naturally, the work cut across department lines and involved large numbers of students—it was the product of cooperative efforts.

We feel that by this exhibit we are doing our share—the share for which the school is responsible in these days when positive enlightened efforts can yet bring about one world, indivisible, with liberty and justice for all.

What Can the Secondary School Learn from the Educational Experience of the Armed Forces?

ALEXANDER TAFFEL, Textile High School

Some time ago, a group of secondary school educators came to visit the training unit at which I was stationed. They had heard much of the success of the armed forces' training programs and had come in the hope of discovering the ways and means whereby that success had been achieved.

When I spoke to some of them afterwards, it was evident that they were disappointed. They had not found anything basically new. The armed forces had better facilities, better equipment, and more money to spend than was generally available to them in the public schools, but, essentially, the teaching and training methods they had seen were the same as those used by competent teachers everywhere. They

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were puzzled. What accounted for the success of the armed forces' training programs? What could the public schools do to emulate it?

TWO MISCONCEPTIONS. I was especially interested in the remarks and attitudes of these educators because they reveal two prevalent misconceptions concerning the educational efforts of the armed forces. The first is that the armed forces developed utterly new and different teaching and training methods. The second is that the armed forces have somehow achieved objectives in mass education that the public schools have never been able to achieve in the past and are generally failing to achieve in the present. The purpose of this article is certainly not to belittle the superb educational accomplishments of the armed forces, but rather to establish in better perspective some of the lessons and implications of those accomplishments for public secondary education.

As for the first misconception, it may be stated that *the success of the armed forces' training programs was not due to the discovery of anything fundamentally new in educational principle or practice but rather to skillful combinations of well-established teaching and testing techniques.* There was lavish use of training films, models, and other teaching aids, but these were intended to supplement, not to substitute for, competent teaching. Perhaps the single aspect most characteristic of the armed forces' training programs was their reliance in so far as possible on learning by doing; in particular, on learning by working with materials and machines in the same setting in which they would be found on the job for which the trainee was being prepared.

As regards the second misconception, it must be observed that the objectives of the two programs are so radically different as to make a general comparison of their relative achievements pointless. Judging the training programs of the armed forces in terms of the realization of their legitimate objectives, we find them successful far beyond the most optimistic original expectations. However, it should be recognized that these objectives were quite limited in scope. Most of them were concerned with the development of technical skills usually involving mastery of only a few processes or machines. Furthermore, where an objective was concerned with imparting an attitude or a mode of behavior, it was always an attitude or behavior pattern determined by military requirements, and therefore specifically defined and imposed upon the trainee from above.

Indeed, it was this very definiteness of the basic objectives which permitted the efficient simplicity and directness of the programs that were organized to attain them.

DIFFERENT GOALS. In contrast, consider the objectives of the secondary school program. Certainly, they can not be limited solely to providing training in specific skills. The development of character, the imparting of democratic ideals, the presentation of at least a basic minimum of the general knowledges and cultures necessary for intelligent citizenship (as well as for more interesting living), and perhaps above all, the stimulation and training of the capacity to think—these have been and must continue to be among the great goals of the educational program in a democracy. What is more, the program can be truly successful only in so far as the attitudes, ideals and behavior patterns it seeks to establish are finally the result of the student's own selection and initiative.

The differences between the two programs stand out even more sharply when we consider the ultimate function of the trainee. In the armed forces, he is being prepared to assume a specifically defined role in a highly regimented organization. He is a cog in the machine. It is not necessary for him to understand the over-all situation in which he functions, nor is he permitted to criticize or make decisions about it. All his time and effort are disposed of in detail by the military organization, and such initiative as he may wish to exercise is sharply limited by the requirement of strict obedience.

In the public school, on the other hand, the individual is being prepared to exercise intelligently the wide freedom and initiative that a democratic society permits. Understanding of the complex social picture is necessary not only for the individual's success, but also for the success of the whole society of which he is a member. As a citizen, it becomes his duty to criticize and help improve the conditions under which all must live, and the stimulus for such action and progress must arise out of the individual's own initiative and sense of social responsibility.

ANALYSIS. Granting the limited character of the objectives of the armed forces' training programs, their phenomenal success still remains an important educational fact. It is illuminating to analyze some of the elements of that success.

1. *Motivation*: The outstanding factor in the armed forces'

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training program was the willing learner. Being at war provided so unchallengeable a motive for learning that it was unnecessary to "sell" any of the programs to the trainee. The trainee was not merely willing. He was *anxious* to learn anything that would help him to function better in the military environment.

2. *Concentration*: The conditions under which the trainee lived in the armed forces favored the concentration of his maximum energy and effort on the task at hand. In the first place, all of the trainee's time was at the disposal of the training program. Secondly, by physically removing him from the interests, responsibilities and diversions that normally claim his attention, the armed forces made it possible for the trainee to devote himself far more completely to his studies than he could in a civilian environment.

3. *Confidence of the Program in the Learner*: Because of their urgency, the armed forces' programs made unusaul demands on the learner. The tasks to be learned were sometimes quite difficult and the time alloted for learning them, short. Nevertheless, the programs proceeded on the assumption that the learner could do the job. This atmosphere of confidence in the learner was an important factor in evoking from him a more energetic effort than he exerts in the usual learning situation.

4. *Surprising Capacity of the Learner*: Probably the most significant fact that emerged from the armed forces' training programs was *the surprising learning capacity and adaptability exhibited by the average trainee.* At least in so far as the acquisition of skills was concerned, the trainees revealed a reserve of ability that seldom comes into play, or is even suspected, while these same individuals are in the secondary schools. To be sure, the powerful motivation, the concentration and the highly purposive atmosphere of the armed forces' programs did much to bring forth the trainee's best effort. Nevertheless, the results of that best effort were impressive indeed.

It should be noted that, like the public education system, the armed forces too were called upon to provide universal training. There was, of course, selection of candidates for specialized programs, but every man had to be trained for something. The overall program was thus one of universal education. For this reason, the new light shed on the potentialities of the average trainee must be considered especially significant for public education.

5. *Specific and Rapidly Attainable Objectives*: The very nature of the requirements of the armed forces made it mandatory to set

up objectives that were not only specific, but also attainable after a short training period. Such objectives made possible definite and detailed course organization, and gave the training program a positive direction. Both instructor and trainee were fully conscious of the goal from the beginning to the end of the program. This concentration on the objective, coupled with the short duration of the training courses, helped to inspire and sustain a high level of effort on the part of all concerned.

6. *Energetic Teaching*: While only some of the programs were directly under the supervision of trained educators, all instructors were alive to the importance of good teaching. Teaching and testing aids were available in abundance. Text material was constantly being revised, simplified, and brought up to date. Many motion pictures, models and other teaching aids were introduced, and adopted or rejected on the basis of their effectiveness as demonstrated by actual experience. There was in the teaching effort a zeal and a sense of motion and activity which, if it did not always produce improvement, certainly proclaimed a healthy unwillingness to remain static.

TWO LESSONS. These, then, are some of the aspects of the success of the armed forces' training programs. What can the secondary school educator learn from them? There are, I believe, two lessons to be learned.

First, *the successful educational efforts of the armed forces have demonstrated the educability of the great masses of our citizens,* at least in so far as the special requirements of the armed forces were concerned. This fact provides a basis for a restoration of confidence in the potentialities of the "average" secondary school learner, a confidence which many secondary school educators of today seem to have lost.

Second, the armed forces have found no magic key to teaching success. Instead, they have demonstrated that *the well-established educational principles and practices, applied with zeal, imagination and sincerity are still the teacher's most effective tools. It is the proper use of these tools that the educator must relearn.*

While the secondary school can seldom provide motivations as intense as those resulting from a state of war, it must devote itself most seriously to a realistic justification of its program that will be understood and accepted by teachers and pupils. Its program must

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have a sharp sense of direction, and must seem to be moving in that direction with energy and self-confidence. To make this possible, the first requisite is a clarification of basic objectives in the simplest and most specific terms. Of course, this is a more difficult task for public education than it was for the armed forces, but the educator cannot expect intelligent human beings to move rapidly in a vague direction in search of a vaguer goal. Only to the degree to which objectives can be reduced to terms that both pupils and teachers clearly understand can the mechanisms for achieving those objectives be planned with confidence.

Here, then, is a pivotal problem in modern secondary education. The objectives are hazy and confused. The educator has not clearly decided what he is trying to achieve. Individual teachers are particularly aware of this, for they find themselves teaching their special subjects without any conscious sense of the connection between their work and the objectives of the secondary school at large. And if the teachers are confused about the objectives of the high school program, how much more confused are the students! Yet the students are most often the final arbiters as to what course or elective they shall undertake.

TO SUM UP. Three great losses of faith seem to plague the modern educator: a loss of faith in the ability of the learner, a loss of faith in educational method, and a loss of faith in the worth of the educational process. The armed forces' training programs have provided a basis for restoration of faith in the first two: faith in the learner, and faith in educational methods. However, the loss of faith in the worth of the educational process can only be remedied by a clear evaluation and restatement of the aims of the educational process and a zealous re-dedication of educators to the achievement of those aims.

High Points

THE ANTIQUARIAN'S CORNER

In the column *Speaking of Books* (The New York *Times Book Review*, January 6, 1946), J. Donald Adams referred to books *"that were spoiled for us by unintelligent teaching"* and to books *"which left a sour taste upon our palates because we associate them*

with a plague of pedantic questions under the impact of which the living juice of the book was dried for us."

If there are any teachers of English literature whose teaching has such effects upon their pupils, let them take note and act accordingly. Adams has written of an understandable personal reaction, but the matter becomes more serious when critics go beyond individual instances and formulate general rules. For example, the Antiquarian came across the following indictment by Walter Prichard Eaton in the New York *Times*, February 27, 1916:

"At present it is safe to say that the average high school makes Shakespeare a bore, and while it may teach enough routine of plot and smattering of philology to jam a child past the college entrance board, it fails utterly to inspire dramatic appreciation, to expand the imagination, to create affection. . . ."

If the teachers of English can bear to read further, they will learn that Tennyson had his fears about the use of his poems as school texts. We are told by his biographer, Hallam Tennyson, that the poet once complained, *"They use me as a lesson book in the schools and they will call me 'that horrible Tennyson.'"*

It isn't funny and Bennett Cerf should be stopped for his pronunciamento in the January 26 issue of *The Saturday Review of Literature*:

"Publishers who speak bravely of improving the literary taste of the younger generation are shooting at the wrong target, I think, when they train their guns on the kids themselves. They need only to develop more teachers with the enthusiasm and the ability to present great literature properly to their classes. The reason so many students read a book for virtually the last time when they graduate from school is not that their taste is inherently bad, but that unimaginative, plodding instructors have made the study of literature a dreary chore instead of an unbelievable delight. . . ."

In the essay, *A Mirror for Magistrates*, found in *The Romany Stain*, Christopher Morley comments on *"the unpleasant suspicion that the professional teachers of 'English' do not always have a very clear idea of what literature is all about, or how it is created. . . . How shall we justify the ways—not of God to man, but of teachers to literature?"*

The strongest statement in this respect is the one attributed to Shaw which is quoted in Adam's column. When Shaw was asked

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for permission to have part of *Saint Joan* included in a high school text, he sternly refused:

"No, I lay my eternal curse on whomsoever (sic) *shall now, or at any time hereafter, make schoolbooks of my works, and make me hated, as Shakespeare is hated. My plays were not designed as instruments of torture."*

As a quondam ancillary teacher of English, the Antiquarian is interested in the above charges, but he will refrain from actual combat. He invites his colleagues, the full-time teachers of English, to rise in their own defense, to take up cudgels, mount barricades, and do whatever else they think necessary to shatter the tradition that the teaching of literature engenders allergies and hatred for an author and all his works.

Possibly among the numerous doctoral dissertations and statistical educational studies there exist papers on *"The Relation between a Dislike for Reading Shakespeare and the Mole on a Teacher's Left Cheek as Ascertained from a Study of* 5,000 *Cases,"* or *"The Correlation between the Pupils' Failure to Appreciate Burke and the Scheduling of English* 8 *after the Lunch Period."*

Not having such studies at hand, all that one can do is to argue without benefit of statistics and to draw upon one's own experiences. The Antiquarian will not deny that some pupils dislike the books they are asked to read in their school work, or that some teachers may not be inspiring. However, in the eight terms of a secondary school course, a pupil may have many different teachers of English and among them he surely will find a few who can undo any harm that a dull teacher may cause, and some who can inculcate a liking for even Shaw.

To give the other side, the Antiquarian will now quote a few examples of teachers who did inspire their pupils with a love for literature.

He is especially fond of an anecdote related by the eminent scholar and teacher, T. R. Glover*:

"Then let us begin in September 1883, *when a rather alarmed boy passed into the Lower Sixth at the Bristol Grammar School, to spend a year under the flashing eye and sharp temper of John George Sowerby Muschamp. One of the works to be read that autumn was the third book of Horace's* Odes, *as edited by Thomas Ethelbert Page. The combination was transforming; Horace, Muschamp and Page turned the boy into an enthusiast for the Classics, a fanatic who has never repented; and they won for themselves an affection which the years have deepened. . . . That Christmas with my own money (and I hadn't too much at that time) I bought another of Page's Horace volumes, and read the first book of the* Odes *because I wanted to read it for myself. Horace fixed my future; my life was to be spent with the Classics."*

Andrew Lang, in his biographical note* on the great scholar William Young Sellar, pays tribute to Edmund Law Lushington, professor of Greek at Glasgow University, with whom Sellar studied. *"To read under him was to gain a new conception of what scholarship might be."*

Sellar dedicated his work on Virgil to his former teacher and emphasized his debt to Lushington:**

"Any old pupil of yours, in finishing a work either of classical scholarship or illustrative of ancient literature, must feel that he owes to you, probably more than to any one else, the impulse which directed him to these studies. . . . Many of your former pupils can confirm my recollection that one of the happiest influences of our youth was the admiration excited by the union, in your teaching, of perfect scholarship with a true and generous appreciation of all that is excellent in literature.

Sellar was a mere schoolboy, not yet fifteen when he began work with Lushington about 1840. More than twenty years later, Lang himself was Sellar's pupil at St. Andrews. He has left us this description of another great teacher:

"He had the great gifts of keeping perfect order and of thoroughly interesting those who studied under him. He taught them that Greek was no more dead language, but the speech of a living and immortal literature. . . . It is not easy for his biographer to refrain from saying that having come to St. Andrews with no purpose of working, he left it in another mind, and that to Mr. Sellar he owes the impulse to busy himself with letters."

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* *Horace: A Return to Allegiance* by T. R. Glover, (Cambridge at the University Press, 1932).

* *The Roman Poets of the Augustan Age: Horace and the Elegiac Poets*, by W. Y. Sellar, *with a Memoir of the Author* by Andrew Lang, (Oxford at the Clarendon Press, reprinted 1937.)

** *The Roman Poets of the Augustan Age: Virgil* by W. Y. Sellar, (Oxford at the Clarendon Press, Third Edition, 1908).

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More recently, Edmund Wilson, writing in the *Atlantic Monthly*, March, 1943, described another teacher of Greek, a Mr. Rolfe of the Hill School, Pottstown, Pennsylvania.

"The first characteristics of Mr. Rolfe's which impressed a boy in his class were the wittiness, pungency, and promptitude of his sarcasm, and the mercilessness of his demands. He put you on the spot for your assignment as none of the other masters did; he would not allow you to slide over anything; and it seemed that he would not help you; and if you failed, he made you feel by some caustic touch a criticism of your classroom personality."

In spite of this forbidding character which, together with the difficulties inherent in the study of Greek, should have made any youngster hate the subject, Wilson soon discovered:

"I began to like Greek, however, which I was only just beginning that year (1909). *The truth was that in spite of his sarcasm, Mr. Rolfe invested everything he dealt with with a peculiar imagination and charm, and this held you even when you resented him. . . . You felt that he was not unkind, that he merely wanted people to learn Greek; that teaching Greek was a serious purpose to which he was devoting his life, and that he only became really unpleasant with students who did not want to learn it."*

These teachers of Latin and Greek who imparted to their pupils a love for literature had greater difficulties to contend with than teachers of English, namely the vast amount of formal work necessary before a pupil can begin to appreciate the literary values. Surely correspondents can furnish examples of similar tributes to teachers of English literature. The Antiquarian will close with one of the noblest expressions of gratitude from a pupil to a teacher. As if appealing from Philip drunk to Philip sober, Morley wrote in different moods about the work of teachers of literature. He refers with affection to one of his teachers at Haverford College, Francis Barton Gummere, in a few places in the collection of essays, *Plum Pudding*.

In Memoriam, Francis Barton Gummere, contains the following tribute:

"It is doubtful if any really great scholar ever gave the best years of his life to so meagrely equipped a succession of youngsters! . . . He turned this following of humble plodders into lovers and zealots of the great regions of English letters. . . ."

"What a range, what a grasp there was in his glowing, various mind! How open it was on all sides, how it teemed with interests,

how different from the scholar of silly traditional belief! We used to believe that he could have taught us history, science, economics, philosophy—almost anything; and so indeed he did. He taught us to go adventuring among masterpieces on our own account, which is the most any teacher can do."

Even in the high schools today there may be found some such teachers in whose hands the plays of Shakespeare or Shaw would not become instruments of torture.

MORRIS ROSENBLUM — Samuel J. Tilden High School

A REPORT ON "THE NEGRO SOLDIER"*

This film, shown at the Preview Theatre to a group of young students and teachers who witnessed how a film may be used as a stepping stone for a group discussion, was very fine. A documented portrayal of the Negro Soldier and his life in the army, it was given in story form—a mother reading a letter to a minister and his congregation. Thus we were given some understanding of the soldier's background and home ties, the story of what he was doing in the army, what the army was doing to him, what others were doing in that same army and what opportunities that life held for him and others. This letter, read by the proud mother in an atmosphere of song, prayer, and sympathetic co-congregationalists, I used very effectively to show how an ordinary Negro soldier, neither gifted nor underprivileged, spent his time in the army during our war.

The showing of the film provoked myriad questions and comments. There was no dead silence and then a prodding by the leader with "Well, what do you think?" Many hands were raised, showing that the film was very thought-provoking and issue raising. The presence of Negro students in this group made, at least to me, the discussion more vital and interesting.

SEGREGATION. Of course, the first thing talked about was Negro segregation in the army. Some students felt that since Negroes could get so much further in their own group, unassailed by the color problem, segregation was not so deleterious a factor. Other

* Submitted at In-Service course given by Mrs. Esther Berg, *Use of Audio-Visual Aids to Better Human Relations.*

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students maintained, and my sympathies were with them, that we are one country and one people who were doing one job: *discrimination, even though there advantages inherent in some slight form or other, is bad from beginning to end no matter what may be the mitigating circumstances.* There was not one Negro student who felt that there was any good in the segregation of the Negro soldier. These opinions came mostly from white students, not narrow, but were honestly trying to clarify the problem in their own minds from a realistic viewpoint. The students listened to each other politely, but here as elsewhere at discussion groups, I have felt that there was very little conversion or changing of opinion but rather a more convinced determination to support original opinions. I am quite certain that after seeing the film the same people who were for the segregation of Negro troops originaly felt that, as a means of having less friction with a color problem during a war, segregation was still the best practical solution. From the army problem the discussion then veered to segregation in neighborhoods, in schools, in social life in general. These students brought forth the most cogent arguments I have heard on all these problems both pro and con in a masterly, grown-up fashion.

OPINIONS. 1. One student said that by segregating the Negroes in the army they had accentuated the problem of rehabilitating them in peacetime.

2. Another student thought that overseas the Negroes were not looked on with such prejudice. In many cases they saved the lives of white people. As a result when some of the white soldiers came back they were shocked by the prejudice that existed in the States against the Negroes, but were helpless to do anything about it.

3. One young person felt that the Negro belonged to a minority group and as such was discriminated against.

4. A teen-ager said this was interwoven with other problems such as the problems of all minority groups and eventually the problem of countries getting along together. The main thing is for people to understand one another.

5. They felt adults were partly responsible for the prejudice by telling their children they can't play with this one or that one but only with so and so. Someone said it was everyone's problem, but the progressive-minded people were the ones who would have to fight, and the Negroes would have to help themselves, too.

6. The discussion was summarized by one of the students, who said: "We are all agreed that discrimination is a very bad thing and nobody wants it here and it will have to be solved. We here think that if we really feel strong enough when we become of age to vote we will try to get our ideas across. There is more need for social living together."

MATURE THINKING. I was most impressed by the fact that there was so very little guiding necessary by their leader, by the practically non-present digression, by the wealth of personal experiences and examples cited, by the good speech, good manners, clear thinking and the expression either of soaked-in prejudices or open-minded understanding. Particularly I was impressed by the patience and dignity of the Negro students who probably have been steeped in an atmosphere of intolerance and bigotry all their thinking young lives. There were no emotional outbursts at narrowness voiced by some students, but rather a sicentific, objective answer given to questions, as if they were discussing the reasons for the butterflies' coloring rather than a question so vital and vexing to themselves.

Comparisons were made with the two other films this same group saw, *Wind, Sand, and Stars* and *And So They Live,* the life of the Kentucky farmer. This was used to show how much was done by a group in desperate circumstances who were given a little help. The students felt that if the Negroes were given the same help, they, too, could show the same glowing results. I mentioned this to show how deep an impression these films make on the minds of these students, and how much thinking and mind-searching, and thought-clarifying these meetings evoke.

MARTHA P. ARLEN

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FOREIGN LANGUAGES AND THE HARVARD REPORT

The Report of the Harvard Committee on *General Education in a Free Society* was greeted throughout these United States with enthusiasm and hope by sincere educators, anxious to accept the findings of the Committee as a way of bringing purpose and meaning into the muddled field of education. Few were ungracious enough to question the why of this Report at this particular time, or to scrutinize too closely the composition of the Committee. Here was

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the unanimous opinion of twelve distinguished scholars as to what general education in a free society should be, what were to be its aims, and how those aims were to be developed.

For its careful research and painstaking investigation, educators throughout the country owe the Harvard Committee an equally careful and painstaking investigation of its Report along with a vote of thanks. With the fourfold aim of education

1—to think effectively
2—to communicate thought
3—to make relevant judgments
4—to discriminate among values (p. 65)

we can agree wholeheartedly. With the choice of subject matter for bringing about this fourfold aim of education, we must disagree radically. By emphasizing the study of English, science and mathematics, and social sciences, and by reserving the study of languages for a chosen few, the Committee has done not only a great disservice to the teaching of language, but to the very ultimate goals of education which the Committee itself recognizes; namely, 1—a *"belief in the worth and meaning of the human spirit"*—*"a belief which rests on that hard but very great thing, tolerance"* (p. 41), and 2—a recognition of man's *"duty to his fellow men."*

Not only does the study of foreign languages develop the fourfold objective, but it brings to the development of the student a further, unique contribution, absolutely essential here in the United States, where our culture, a conglomeration of the cultures of many peoples and of many lands, must bridge the gap between the old world and the new. Only through the study of a foreign language (preferably the mother tongue of his parents) will the first-generation American learn to appreciate (rather than repudiate) the cultural heritage of his forebears and their contribution to our civilization. Only through the study of a foreign language will older generations of Americans, comfortable in their insularity, emerge from their provincialism and recognize that there are civilizations and ways of living and ways of speakng other than our own. Surely the study of at least one foreign language is the sine qua non of *"the citizen of the entire universe"* (p. 53).

Since, then, the study of foreign languages not only develops (as do other subjects) the power to think effectively, to communicate thought, to make relevant judgments, to discriminate among values, but also awakens in the American an appreciation and understanding

of the cultural background and heritage of foreign cultures on which our culture is based, its inclusion in the recommended core of basic studies for general education in a free society is indispensable.

Nor is language to be studied (as the Harvard Committee suggests) only for its aid in developing *"growth in his own speech, not in the foreign speech"* (p. 125). On the contrary, language is to be taught for itself—for the joy of speaking it—no matter how badly—for the thrill of recognizing foreign expressions in a book or newspaper, for the link it furnishes with English, and for the vast wonderlands it offers by opening doors to new worlds—old worlds from which our culture, our heritage, our democracy grew.

FRANCES O. LANDAU William Howard Taft High School

LATIN MEETS TODAY'S HEADLINES

The Latin bulletins described below have been reviewed favorably in leading classical magazines such as THE CLASSICAL JOURNAL, THE CLASSICAL WEEKLY, THE CLASSICAL OUTLOOK *and* AUXILIUM LATINUM. *The circulation of these weekly "libelli" has grown from a comparative handful in September, 1942. For the last three terms, schools in each of the 48 states have asked to be put on the weekly mailing list. In the fall of 1945, schools in Hawaii and Puerto Rico were added to the list of readers. Since many English departments receive the Libelli, the value of the bulletins is appreciated by students other than those in Latin classrooms.* [ED.]

In the fall of 1942 the present series of Latin bulletins was initiated. This was done with the clear realization that throughout the ages Latin has proved to be a flexible language capable of expressing current events concisely. There seemed no reason why the modern languages should be the sole classroom means of dealing with news of general interest. The *Libelli* were also written to refute the imputation that Latin is a "dead" language. It is as alive as its method of presentation. The large percentage of new words coming into English by way of Latin and Greek is further proof, if any be needed, of Latin's vitality.

THE BULLETINS. The *Libellus* in the form now familiar to readers in all the 48 states, Hawaii and Puerto Rico is the result of experimentation in the type of material most likely to appeal to

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students of Latin. The early bulletins dealt mainly with war news, and for some time Latin words were correlated chiefly with war terms in modern languages. Special *Libelli* were issued on V-J Day, V-E Day and on other notable dates, and a survey of headlines from September, 1942, to the end of the war does give a clear kaleidoscopic picture of the high points of the world struggle. Gradually, however, the bulletins became more varied in character, and their value came to be centered in correlation of Latin with other languages. The type of *Libellus* thus evolved usually has the following pattern:

A. Headline in English quoted from a local paper
B. Latin version of the same headline
C. Explanation of a single Latin word of the headline
D. A listing of related words in English, French, Spanish and Italian, and occasionally other languages
E. One or more Latin quotations involving the word under discussion
F. Phases of Roman culture suggested by the word under discussion

The bulletins rarely exceed twenty-five typewritten lines.

ANCIENT HISTORY. The bulletin issued on October 23, 1944, when the Americans were in Aachen afforded an ideal opportunity to correlate ancient history with current events:

SCHOLA SUPERIOR CASTELLI HAMILTONIENSIS
NOVA SEPTIMANARIA

Libellus 125 October 23, 1944 Brooklyn, N. Y.

"Americans advance slowly in Aachen ruins."

AMERICANI IN AQUISGRANI RUINIS LENTE PROGREDIUNTUR.

NOTE: AACHEN is the German name for Lat. AQUISGRANUM and French Aix la Chapelle.—AQUISGRANUM is derived from AQUAE, "springs", and GRANNUS, an epithet of Apollo as god of healing. The curative power of the hot springs of AACHEN was known in ancient times. Between 89 and 120 A.D. the Romans built baths there. This old town was a favorite residence of Charlemagne, who made it the capital of his northern realm. Here he died and was buried.—(Some authorities, notably Brockhaus in German, prefer AQUAE GRANI to AQUISGRANUM as the Lat nominative form for AACHEN.)

AQUAE in the headline is plural of AQUA, "water."—AQUAMARINE (Lat. aqua marina, "sea water") is "bluish green."—AQUARELLE is "a drawing in water color." AQUA VITAE ("water of life") is an old name for alcohol, now familiarly applied to brandy. AQUA FORTIS ("strong water") is nitric acid.—What is AQUA REGIA?

Explain the origin of AQUATIC, AQUARIUM, AQUEDUCT, AQUEOUS.

The first two verses of the 23rd Psalm in Latin are: "Jehova pastor meus est, non possum egere. In caulis herbidis facit ut recubem, secundum AQUAS lenes deducit me."

Cognates of AQUA in the Romance languages are EAU in French, AGUA in Spanish, and ACQUA in Italian.

EEC

EQUIVALENT EXPRESSIONS. The *Libellus* of March 19, 1945, was the occasion for pointing out that the Romans expressed the idea of a "bridgehead" just as we do in English, for showing the evolution of several place names, and for referring to Caesar's crossing of the Rhine in 55 B.C.:

SCHOLA SUPERIOR CASTELLI HAMILTONIENSIS
NOVA SEPTIMANARIA

Libellus 142 March 19, 1945 Brooklyn, N. Y.

"Americans block attack of the Germans at Rhine bridgehead."

AMERICANI IMPETUM GERMANORUM AD CAPUT PONTIS IN RHENO PROPULSANT.

NOTE: (1) The Romans expressed the idea of a "bridgehead" just as we do in English: in one of his letters to his friends (Epistulae ad Familiares, 10,18) Cicero uses the words "ad capita pontis" for "at either head of the bridge."

(2) This bulletin serves to show the evolution and historical significance of several words that have appeared in recent news items: RHINE (Fr. RHIN, Span. RIN or RHIN, Ital. RENO) is from Lat. Rhenus. In 55 B.C. Julius Caesar built a bridge across the Rhine at a point generally believed to be near BONN (Lat. BONNA or CASTRA BONNENSIA). (See Gallic War, Bk. IV, Ch. 17.) BONN became famous later for its university, and as the birthplace of Beethoven. COLOGNE (Eng. as in Fr.), German KÖLN, was the ancient town of the Ubii, "Oppidum Ubiorum," and the birth place of Agrippina, mother of Nero. The town was named *COLONIA* AGRIPPINA in her honor, and became a Roman colony in 51 or 50 A.D. "COLONIA" gave rise to KÖLN and COLOGNE.—COBLENZ (German KOBLENZ) had the Latin name of CONFLUENTIA, since it is situated at the *confluence* of the Moselle (German MOSEL, Lat. MOSELLA) and Rhine rivers.—AACHEN (French Aix la Chapelle), Lat. AQUISGRANUM or AQUAE GRANI, was explained in detail in Libellus 125.—A knowledge of these place names will help you to understand maps with foreign language nomenclature.

EEC

Students were interested to learn from bulletin #138 that the Romans also had rationing:

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SCHOLA SUPERIOR CASTELLI HAMILTONIENSIS
NOVA SEPTIMANARIA

Libellus 138 February 19, 1945 Brooklyn, N. Y.

"No new shoe stamp until May 1st or until summer."—NULLA NOVA TESSELLA CALCEARIA USQUE AD KALENDAS MAIAS VEL USQUE AD AESTATEM.

NOTE: (1) Rationing is not new: we learn from Juvenal (about 60-140 A.D.) and Suetonius (first part of the second century A.D.) that the Romans used TESSERAE,* "tokens" or "tickets," to facilitate distribution of food. Holders of TESSERAE FRUMENTARIAE were entitled to get doles of corn.—(TESSELLA-ae, f. is a diminutive.)

(2) From CALCEUS,-i, m., "shoe," we have the adj. CALCEARIUS, "pertaining to shoes." Eng. RECALCITRANT is from RECALITRARE, "to kick back" (CALCITRARE is "to use the heel," CALX, CALCIS); RECALCITRANT is lit. "kicking" against constraint or restriction, obstinately disobedient or refractory, e.g. Green wrote (1855) in his *Short History*: "For a time it was necessary to suspend the more RECALCITRANT minitsers." (NED) RECALCITRANT may be applied humorously to things: "A RECALCITRANT pin fell from its rightful place."

A well known Latin proverb is: "De CALCEO sollicitus, at pedem nihil curans." "Anxious about the shoe, but careless about the foot" (said of those who are more thoughtful about outside appearances than about the cultivation of the mind.)

RECALCITRANT is RECALCITRANT in French, RECALCITRANTE in Spanish, and RICALCITRANTE in Italian.

EEC

STUDENT INTERESTS. Whenever possible bulletin material is chosen with regard to the special interests of student readers. Several *Libelli* have featured the appearance of new postage stamps, e.g., the Al Smith stamp, with November 26, 1945, as the first day of issuance, was discussed under a *Libellus* on that very date. Italian stamps with pictures of Jupiter and Minerva were the theme of bulletin 151:

SCHOLA SUPERIOR CASTELLI HAMILTONIENSIS
NOVA SEPTIMANARIA

Libellus 164 Nov. 26, 1945 Brooklyn, N. Y.

"Today a stamp honoring Al Smith, 'the man with the brown hat,' former distinguished governor of New York state, is being issued."

HODIE PITTACIUM TABELLARIUM IN HONOREM AL SMITH 'VIRI CUM PETASO FUSCO,' PRISTINI GUBERNATORIS EGREGI STATUS NEO-EBORACENSIS EDITUR.

* Literally "dice," a game of which the Romans were very fond.

NOTE: "Distinguished" is here rendered by the Lat. adj. EGREGIUS. GREX, GREGIS is "a flock" and the adj. GREGARIUS (which gives us the Eng. adj. GREGARIOUS) is lit. "belonging to the flock" or "of the common herd." EGREGIUS thus means "standing out from the herd," hence "distinguished," The Eng. adj. EGREGIOUS is now archaic in the sense of "surpassing"; in modern Eng. it has taken on the meaning of "shocking," e.g., an EGREGIOUS folly or blunder. GREGARIOUS animals tend to flock together. A CONGREGATION is an assembly, lit. "a flock" of persons. People with contagious diseases are SEGREGATED, i.e. separated from other people, "the flock."

"Et pastores erant in regione eadem vigilantes et custodientes vigilias noctis super GREGEM suum." (And there were shepherds in the same country abiding in the field, and keeping watch by night over their FLOCK. Luke 2, 8.)

GREX venalium is "a flock of hirelings" or "a venal pack."

SEGREGATION is SEGREGATION in French, SEGREGACION in Spanish, and SEGREGAZIONE in Italian.

EEC

SCHOLA SUPERIOR CASTELLI HAMILTONIENSIS
NOVA SEPTIMANARIA

Libellus 151 May 28, 1945 Brooklyn, N. Y.

"Pictures of Jupiter and Minerva may be reproduced on new Italian stamps."—IMAGINES IOVIS ET MINERVAE SUPER NOVA PITTACIA TABELLARIA ITALICA FORTASSE REPRODUCENTUR.

(cf. Libellus 146 for Latin equivalent of "postage stamp.")

NOTE: "Jupiter," Lat. "Iuppiter," i.e. "Iou-pater" (Father Jove) is declined Iovis, Iovi, Iovem, Iove.—In astrology Jupiter was the happiest star of one's birth; those born under this star were said to have a cheerful disposition, hence Eng. JOVIAL (cf. "mercurial." from Mercury, and "saturnine" from Saturn).

"Thursday" is Late Lat. DIES IOVIS, "the day of Jupiter" (cf. French JEUDI, Span. JUEVES, Ital. GIOVEDI, all meaning "Thursday," lit. day of Jupiter or Jove). In the Germanic languages DIES IOVIS was translated as "Thor's Day" or "Thunder's Day"): Icelandic Thorsdagr, Swedish and Danish Torsdag, Dutch Donderdag, and German Donnerstag. Eng. Thursday is lit. "Thor's Day."—There are a few very rare instances of "Thursday" being designated as "Thunderday" or "Thundurday" in Eng., e.g., "The Thundurday nexte after the ffest of the Birth of owr lorde In the year of the Reyne of Kynge Henry the v." (Quotation from the year 1490, with spelling then current. NED).

"IUPPITER in multos temeraria fulmina torquet
Qui poenam culpa non meruere pati." (Ovid)

(Jupiter hurls his lightnings at random against many who have not deserved punishment for any commensurate fault.)

"IOVE enim tonante cum populo agi non esse fas." (Cicero. When Jove is thundering it is not right to be treating with the people.)

EEC

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HUMOR. On October 8, 1945, the bulletin on the return of maids showed how a semi-humorous English headline may be turned neatly into Latin. At the same time it was the occasion for a note that would appeal particularly to students of pharmacy:

SCHOLA SUPERIOR CASTELLI HAMILTONIENSIS
NOVA SEPTIMANARIA

Libellus 159 Oct. 8, 1945 Brooklyn, N. Y.

"Do you remember 'maids,' those efficient creatures who did the dusting, washed the dishes, and took care of the baby? Well, they're back, but they cost much more!"

DE MEMORIANE EXCIDERUNT ILLAE MULIERES EFFICACES FAMULAE APPELLATAE, QUAE PULVEREM EXTERGERENT, FICTILIA LAVARENT, PARVULOS CURARENT? NUNC VERO, REVERTERUNT, AT MAIORE ARGENTO CONDUCENDAE SUNT!

NOTE: The noun PULVIS, -eris, m. is "dust." Eng. PULVERIZE (from late Lat. PULVERIZARE) is "to reduce to powder or dust." The adj. PULVERULENT means "powdery" or, as applied to rocks, "apt to crumble," e.g., "A rock is said to be . . . PULVERULENT, when it readily falls to powder." NED—Ash-Wednesday is sometimes called PULVER-Wednesday. The now obsolete Eng. PULVER meant "powder" or "dust." German PULVER is "powder" and Schiesspulver is gun-powder, but Ger. uses PUDER (like Eng. POWDER from Fr. POUDRE) for face-powder.—Students interested in pharmacy will find a number of derivatives in the *Pharmacopoeia of the U. S.* from which we may mention "PULVERES effervescentes compositi," compound effervescent powders. There are numerous derivatives of Lat. PULVIS in scientific terminology: birds, such as sparrows, that like to take dust baths are known as PULVERATRICES, the plural form of PULVERATRIX.

PULVERIZE is PULVERISER in French, PULVERIZAR in Spanish and POLVERIZZARE in Italian.

EEC

THE NEW AND THE OLD. The *Libellus* dealing wih the "atomic bomb" showed that the words used to denote new inventions may be very old:

SCHOLA SUPERIOR CASTELLI HAMILTONIENSIS
NOVA SEPTIMANARIA

Libellus 161 Oct. 22, 1945 Brooklyn, N. Y.

"Scientists say man can destroy himself but not the earth with the atomic bomb."—HOMINES SCIENTIAE PERITISSIMI DICUNT HOMINEM SE, NON TERRAM, BOMBA ATOMICA DELERE POSSE.

NOTE: The "atomic bomb" (*bomba atomica*) about which we have heard so much recently is a new invention, but the words used to designate it are

very old. BOMB is from Anglo-French BOMBE, an adaptation of Spanish BOMBA, which is in turn probably from BOMBO, "a humming noise"; in other words BOMB is of onomatopoetic origin and is ultimately identical with BOOM. (NED)—ATOM is from the Greek ATOMOS (Lat. ATOMUS, adj. ATOMICUS). The Greek adj. ATOMOS means "indivisible" and later came to be used as a noun, "that which is indivisible" (a conception upset by recent discoveries).—*A*, the Greek prefix of negation or privation as in the word ATOM, occurs in many Eng. words, e.g., ADAMANT (lit. "invincible," hence impenetrably hard, both literally and figuratively); in scientific words such as ACAUDAL or ACAUDATE, "without a tail" (Lat. cauda, "a tail"); APETALOUS, "without petals," etc.

A medieval Latin quotation descriptive of a hubbub is: "BOMBALIO, clangor, stridor, taratantara, murmur" (a BOOMING, clanging, whistling, trumpeting, buzzing sound).

BOMB is BOMBE in French, BOMBA in Spanish and Italian, and BOMBE in German.

EEC

RECENT BULLETINS. With the advent of peace more and more attention will be given to headlines featuring problems dealing with the preservation of the peace. Three bulletins of January, 1946, deal with peace-time inventions:

SCHOLA SUPERIOR CASTELLI HAMILTONIENSIS
NOVA SEPTIMANARIA

Libellus 168 Jan. 7, 1946 Brooklyn, N. Y.

"Television takes stride forward. Pictures and associated sound can now be transmitted simultaneously on the same carrier wave."

TELEVISIO PRORSUM GRADITUR. IMAGINES CUM SONO SOCIATO PER EANDEM UNDAM GERULAM NUNC SIMUL TRANSMITTI POSSUNT.

SCHOLA SUPERIOR CASTELLI HAMILTONIENSIS
NOVA SEPTIMANARIA

Libellus 169 Jan. 14, 1946 Brooklyn, N. Y.

"Scientists of the Bell Telephone Laboratories have invented a machine which turns spoken words into readable patterns for the deaf."

TECHNICI EX LABORATORIIS SOCIETATIS TELEPHONICAE BELLANAE MACHINAM INVENERUNT, QUAE VERBA DICTA IN SPECIMINA LEGIBILIA PRO SURDIS PERMUTET.

SCHOLA SUPERIOR CASTELLI HAMILTONIENSIS
NOVA SEPTIMANARIA

Libellus 170 Jan. 21, 1946 Brooklyn, N. Y.

"Electronic process ends bane of moldy bread. New method 'broadcasts' dielectric heat waves through wrapped loaf."

PROCESSUS ELECTRONICUS PESTEM PANIS MUCIDI FINIT. NOVA METHODUS UNDAS CALORIS DIELECTRICAS PER PANEM INVOLUTUM "RADIOFUNDIT."

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OUTCOMES. From these typical examples of Latin bulletins it is seen that such use of Latin vitalizes the language, gives the student a clear insight into many English words of Latin provenience, establishes interesting connections with related words in other languages, makes students conscious of current events that might not otherwise come to their attention, and correlates Latin with other subjects such as history, music and art. Latin words under discussion are enhanced by appropriate quotations, and by reference to interesting phases of Roman culture.

EMORY E. COCHRAN Fort Hamilton High School

STAGE SCRIPTS TO IMPROVE HUMAN RELATIONS

Now that the war is technically over, we must continue to fight a revival of hate, discrimination, and prejudice. If we believe in our Bill of Rights and the other charters of liberty which have sprung up from time to time, we must take on the responsibility of teaching our students to practice these principles. *In short, we must make democracy work.*

The most effective aid, aside from the movies, is the stage script (as distinguished from the radio script) suitable for simple dramatization in classroom, clubroom, and assembly hall.

Most of the pieces listed below have been issued by special organizations busy with the problem of bettering human relations. Unfortunately few publishers have found it profitable to start a new category or subdivision of the special-problem play.

To be fully effective, these playlets must be followed by classroom discussion on the day of presentation. The English and history classes can best reenforce the truth or truths projected by one of these plays in the assembly. The wise teacher will not be troubled too much with how to motivate or correlate.

The listing herewith submitted has been brought up to date. At the end of the title-lines, the symbols E, J, S, signify Elementary, Junior High, and Senior High levels. The other notations are self-explanatory.

STAGE SCRIPTS

All Aboard by Ben Bengal S

Soldiers in a train argue the question of discrimination when a Negro is forced to move to the rear. Extremely good dialog.

Theatre Arts, September, 1944
reprinted in *Scholastic*, December 4, 1944

As One Star Differeth J, S

A dramatic presentation of the virtue of being different in manner, appearance, and ideas. Poetic lines are quoted here and there. Suitable for brotherhood week.

National Conference of Christians and Jews
381 Fourth Avenue, New York City Free

Divide and Conquer by Allan Sloane and Bob Russell. E, J

A Catholic, Negro and Jewish boy play together. A bully divides their loyalty and picks up their marbles. A bystander points out the analogy to Hitler's tactics.

Green Publishing Company
Box 823, Amityville, New York 15c

Haven of the Spirit by Merrill Denison. S

Deals with Roger Williams and religious toleration.

Dramatists Play Service, Inc.
6 E. 39th Street
New York City 30c

Haym Solomon by Mildred June Janusch J, S

The generous contribution of the Jewish patriot and financier to the forces of George Washington is told simply.

The Scholastic, May 6, 1939

Haym Solomon by Marcus Bach S

An interesting study of a little-known episode in the period of the American Revolution.

Walter H. Baker
178 Tremont Street
Boston, Mass. 35c

A Hero Comes Home by Jean Karsavina J, S

A returning veteran is surprised to find anti-Semitism at home. When he learns that his friend is a victim, he decides to join the counterattack against the evil.

Stage for Action will perform it, free
130 W. 42nd Street
New York 18, New York

Jefferson Lives Today by Anette Smith Lawrence J, S

A plea for equality and freedom for all peoples.

American Unity, March-April, 1943
issued by Council against Intolerance
17 E. 42nd Street
New York City Free

Jefferson's Spirit Lives E, J

A brief sketch written by students voicing a plea to unite.

American Unity, March, 1944
issued by Council against Intolerance
17 E. 42nd Street
New York City Free

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Let My People Go E, J

A plea for Negro equality writen by students.

American Unity, October, 1943
issued by Council against Intolerance
17 E. 42nd Street
New York City

Let No Tears Be Shed by Henry Goodman Free

A moving memorial of the Jewish defenders of Warsaw. S

Henry Goodman
11 Schermerhorn Street
Brooklyn 2, New York

Look Beyond the Label by Irene D. Jaworski 10c

A witty playlet to prove that people are people regardless of color or nationality. The label or name or stereotype tells us nothing. We belong to a single race: the human race. S

Bureau for Intercultural Education
1697 Broadway
New York 19, New York

Meet Your Relatives by Alice B. Nirenberg, with original lyrics by Don Karlin. 15c

A dramatization of some of the A B C's of anthropology in the form of an illustrated lecture. Light and gay. E, J, S

Public Affairs Committee
30 Rockefeller Plaza
New York 20, New York

Playing Fair by Fanny Venable Cannon. 5c

Four short plays on the subject of understanding and living with minority groups. S

E. P. Dutton and Company
300 Fourth Avenue
New York City

Ring Freedom Ring $1.00

A pageant produced by the Rochester public schools for casts of 250 and more. "A dramatic picturization of our nation's hard-won freedoms which we treasure most carefully with each succeeding generation." The growth of liberty in the United States. J, S

Address Hazel M. Stowell
Charlotte High School
4115 Lake Avenue
Rochester, New York

A Salute to the Fourth by Elizabeth McFadden. 30c

This playlet dramatizes the struggle for race tolerance. S

Dramatists Play Service, Inc.
6 E. 39th Street
New York City

Skin Deep by Charles Polachek E, J, S

A long play to demonstrate in witty fashion that differences between races and peoples and nationalities are mythical. Under the skin we are all brothers. The facts from *Races of Mankind* are cleverly dramatized.

Stage for Action will perform it, free
130 W. 42nd Street
New York 18, New York

Such Harmony by W. Eric Harris S

This play suggests the possible beginnings of authoritative control of freedom of speech, the vague influences of which, if given free play, might usher in fascism even in a country like Canada. Its people are everyday people, and its action is placed with a family having a picnic supper in a city park.

Samuel French
25 W. 45th Street
New York, New York 35c

Who Built the Bridge? E, J

Many nationalities contribute to build a bridge, which is America.

Council against Intolerance
17 E. 42nd Street
New York, New York Free

FELIX SPER Thomas Jefferson High School

THE SMYTH REPORT IN THE MATHEMATICS CLASS

In addition to its tremendous intrinsic value, the official report, *Atomic Energy for Military Purposes* by Henry D. Smyth, will aid mathematics teachers in motivating and illustrating their subject. Only a small sample of such opportunities will be mentioned in the following paragraphs:

Signed Numbers: The charges in the atom; balance of positive and negative charges in an uncharged atom; ionization as a non-zero sum of signed numbers.

Exponents: Use of powers of ten to express units and measurements; the use of this form to illustrate characteristic and mantissa of a logarithm; the "exponential pile" as a phenomenon created by a "multiplication factor."

Convergence of Geometric Series: Criterion of a self-sustaining chain reaction as a function of the magnitude of the multiplication factor as compared to unity; the limit value, K; the half life of a radioactive substance.

Probability: Probability of fission-producing neutron bombard-

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ments; "cross-sections" of substances; the use of graphite and heavy water as "moderators" in atomic piles.

Variation: Direct variation as the square in the mass-energy formula; inverse variation as the square in the attraction and repulsion of charges; variation as the square root in the diffusion method of isotope separation. The critical size of a pile or bomb depends on the fact that volume varies as the cube and the surface as the square of a linear dimension.

There are numerous formulas of varying complexity. Some not previously mentioned are those for the number of neutrons in an atom, binding energy, separation and enrichment factors.

Many plane and solid figures are mentioned and their properties used. Some are: the semi-circular paths of ions in an electromagnetic separator, the shape of exponential piles, the various types of moderators, and the orbits of electrons.

It goes without saying that the book makes fascinating reading.

WALLACE P. MANHEIMER — Forest Hills High School

YOUR PUPIL TEACHER

The teaching staff is about to receive a transfusion of new blood. For the first time in many years, regular examination are being given in high school subjects. As a result, "young" teachers, who have long been absent from our schools, will once more begin to hold forth in the classroom.

With this added attraction, many college seniors and graduates are again turning to the profession of teaching. The direct effect of this will undoubtedly be noticed in the appearance of increased numbers of pupil-teachers in high school classes throughout the city.

When the various high school departments receive requests from the colleges for pupil-teacher placement, the chairman will designate one or more of his teachers to become the "cooperating" teacher. To many a teacher this will be a new experience, or perhaps a renewal of an old one. On the day when the pupil-teacher appears, the cooperating teacher will be confronted with the problem of how to initiate this neophyte in the best possible manner. He will probably try to think back to the days when he himself was the entering novice, or he may turn to the best pedagogical methods recommended by one or more learned books in supervision.

Sometimes the pupil-teacher who has just completed her term of service is in a good position to evaluate her own experiences. She can indicate a reaction which reveals the problems which she herself has had to cope with in trying to adjust herself to this new world.

With the thought that new cooperating teachers will be interested in becoming acquainted with the views of the pupil-teacher, there is printed herewith such a statement which was prepared by Miss Margaret Feeney of the College of Mount St. Vincent at the conclusion of her period of training recently at the Bronx High School of Science.

Teaching and the Pupil Teacher

"The ease and poise of an experienced teacher is an everlasting source of wonder to a casual observer; to a prospective teacher it affords an awe-inspiring picture captioned Will I Ever Be Able To Do That? The young student who is preparing for a teaching career when first confronted with student-teaching thinks at once of that picture. A sense of apprehension, coupled with the natural subjective feeling that is always directed toward a totally new experience, results in a well-defined case of 'jitters.'

"The first day of student teaching can do much to alleviate this feeling. Entering (even through the back door) the Teaching Profession is an immense step forward whether we realize it or not. Up to this time the student teacher has always been on the receiving end of the educational process. The opportunity to step behind the scenes, to become a part of the integral organization that dispenses knowledge affords an immense feeling of accomplishment. This is certainly true if a well defined relationship is set up between the student and the cooperating teacher. In the peculiar dualistic existence that the student teacher finds herself in, it is difficult to become adapted to the position of pseudo-teacher. The responsibility of doing this rests of course primarily with the student but her ability to make this adjustment depends to a lesser extent on the cooperating teacher. As I said before, the first day is really the all-important day. It is here that the pattern is formed for all future relationships and accomplishments.

"In my own experience I found many of my fears groundless because of the consideration shown by the members of the department. The idea of being accepted is, in my opinion, of primary importance. Of course, it is impossible to feel entirely at ease the first day but

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the lack of studied formality on the part of the cooperating teacher does much to create an atmosphere of being part of the whole. I think that this attitude of informality should prevail in the relationship of student and cooperating teacher. I do not mean to imply that the conventional idea of student-teacher relationship should be abandoned entirely. The whole point of student-teaching would then be lost. The purpose of undertaking such a project is to learn, and learning necessitates this type of relationship. The student teacher usually has taken many of the education courses in order to prepare herself for student teaching. These courses, however, only lay the groundwork; practical teaching experience gives the opportunity to apply the principles that have been learned. Student-teaching affords a new teacher this opportunity to see the various methods of teaching used and to use them; to learn something of the administration of a department in a high school; and more especially, to deal with students as individuals.

"It is up to the teacher to set the pattern for the whole period of student-teaching. This, of course, is an added burden to an already crowded schedule. Certainly the student-teacher should keep this in mind and be ready and willing to undertake any task that might compensate for this added responsibility. In view of the many invaluable advantages that are to be gained by the student teacher, it seems little enough to do.

"After the pattern has been set it is an easy enough task to carry out the work. The teacher is always willing to offer advice about lesson plans, to answer the endless questions that arise, to give helpful hints concerning the approach to difficult problems, to suggest ways of becoming more adept at teaching. Criticism is inevitable and it should be encouraged by the student teacher. The main thing in this regard is at least to try to refrain from committing the same mistake consistently.

"The teacher realizes many of the problems that confront the student and tries to help bridge them. The calm attitude of willingness to help and of consideration on the part of the cooperating teacher is a big step in this direction. By experience the teacher has learned the best approach to these difficulties. With this knowledge he is able to make the meeting of such problems a much less fearsome ordeal for the student teacher. Such help and advice by guiding the student bolsters her self-confidence and enables her to do her best work.

"Although student-teaching requires a great deal of time, work and concentration (perhaps I should have said 'blood, sweat and tears'), I've found it to be well worth the effort. Actual participation in the workings of a regular high school class leaves little to the imagination in regard to the duties of a high school teacher. I really feel that I've accomplished a great deal during my time as a student teacher. I now feel relaxed in front of a class; I know, at least in part, what to expect of a high school biology class; I've become acquainted with the general attitude of the students and I have learned how to cope with some of the situations that arise. This is, of course, in addition to the factual knowledge concerning the content of the course and actual methods of presentation. This, too, is important, but it is, in my opinion, secondary to the experience gained in dealing with students as individuals. 'You teach the student not the subject.'

"Practice-teaching is such a burden in the beginning that it seems almost impossible to realize that it was no burden at all. Instead it became a stimulating experience that made teaching infinitely more attractive; that opened new roads of inquiry and created new ideas out of old. I realize that student teaching has advanced me well along the road to a teaching career, which is my final goal."

MAURICE BLEIFELD
High School of Science

A SELF-RATING INVENTORY OF GOOD PRACTICES IN THE TEACHING OF GENERAL SCIENCE

This inventory is the outgrowth of discussions of teaching practice conducted by the Junior High School Standing Committee on Science. It was first prepared for the guidance of newly appointed teachers of science and for the benefit of those who are teaching science in junior high schools without courses in the teaching of this special subject. It has been found to have wider application in both the junior high schools and in 8B elementary schools where science is taught without the benefit of the kind of supervisory counsel available in the senior high schools. Because of the wide spread appreciation of any device of this kind that tends to improve teaching, the inventory is submitted to the readers of *High Points* and with the same reservations that accompany its use in the junior high schools. Its authors do not pretend that this inventory is all inclusive, but they do believe it impossible to be a good teacher of science unless

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one can score himself as attempting to do at least 50%-75% of these things most of the time and all of the things some of the time. In all, there are 52 items. Now let's lay the cards on the table, ask yourself, "As to. . . .

Aims, Objectives, and Motivation

DO I . . .

1. and my class begin every lesson or lesson unit with a clearly defined aim?
2. keep the aim before my class during the lesson or unit and refer to it frequently?
3. aim to teach scientific principles, generalizations, and generalized facts rather than mere unrelated details?
4. make sure that the pupils are aware that the lesson has a worthwhile purpose to them?
5. plan and strive to miss none of the opportunities to achieve all the objectives expressed and implied in the aim?
6. restrain my enthusiasm to stress subject matter so that the aims set up are consistent with the needs, abilities, background, and interests of my pupils and the time at our disposal?
7. employ aims and objectives which are intrinsically motivating and designed to stimulate more than fleeting interest?
8. avoid using purely extrinsic, irrelevant, and sensational forms of motivation?
9. permit pupils to formulate their own objectives and standards of accomplishment with the help of *active* guidance and encouragement?
10. bear in mind my responsibility to assist pupils to appreciate their *future* educational and vocational needs and to advise them that their present interests alone should not govern their choice of goals?
11. seek opportunities to awaken a scientific attitude?
12. create situations which quicken the imagination; awaken civic consciousness; and arouse attitudes of respect and appreciation for the opinions and achievements of others regardless of their race, creed, nationality, or economic background?
13. relate the aims of ethical behavior to the aims of science?

14. try to instil a desire to think critically about one's own motives and actions as well as problems of science?
15. leave no stone unturned to uproot superstition and prejudice?

Continuity and Development of Lessons

DO I . . .

1. sustain a good tempo throughout the lesson, allowing no part to drag?
2. influence the sequence of topics so that they follow naturally, yet logically and psychologically into a desirable pattern?
3. provide situations and a setting that will induce pupil activity and participation in the lesson?
4. elicit information by the skillful use of questions rather than by having it recited or read from a text that has been memorized?
5. occasionally test the accuracy and depth of the pupils' understanding of the material taught in terms of their power to solve novel problems without the aid of others?
6. make frequent use of the experimental method of solving problems?
7. insist upon the use of a check or control experiment whenever this is possible?
8. insist that the pupils state facts and conclusions accurately?
9. attempt to integrate the work with the work of other subjects?
10. provide opportunities for group and committee work to be brought to the attention of the entire class?
11. encourage pupil initiative and inventiveness by permitting the use and demonstration of pupil-made apparatus at times?
12. make use of any available space for the display of pupil projects, science hobby work, or club activities?
13. take pupils to visit the Hayden Planetarium, museums, industrial exhibits, engineering projects, public works, power stations, etc.?
14. permit and encourage pupil participation in regional science fairs, congresses, science radio programs, exhibits, etc.?
15. have my pupils keep observational data and records in their note-

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books, rather than sanctioning the use of these for "busy work," copy books," or "window dressing?"

16. conclude my lessons with a summary?
17. give home assignments that provide opportunities for further mental growth and do I check, inspect, and admire the results?

The Mechanics of Presentation and Professional Attitude

DO I . . .

1. vary the procedures employed, making skillful and effective use of several techniques such as: textbook research, reading reference books and periodicals, experimentation, visualization, hearing committee reports, illustration and problem solving at blackboard, short-answer type reviews, problem solving, lecture demonstrations, etc.?
2. permit pupils to perform non-hazardous experiments?
3. make maximum use of visual aids?
4. employ every means for making all that goes on in my classroom visible to the entire class?
5. speak so that I can be heard without difficulty in all parts of my classroom?
6. make sure that the bulletin board is attractive and that the material on it is changed frequently?
7. have a shelf for reference books and a magazine rack or file for pamphlets and other small reference materials?
8. know how to make charts and lantern slides?
9. enlist the help of pupil assistants and accept their suggestions?
10. teach the technique of using reference materials?
11. recognize the value of teaching pupils how to manipulate apparatus skillfully by being skillful in my own use of it?
12. exercise caution in performing experiments, keeping dangerous chemicals, etc., out of pupils' reach?
13. assemble apparatus as part of the demonstration, having made sure *ahead* of time that no hitch will occur?
14. have fire-fighting apparatus and first-aid equipment in an accessible part of my room?
15. replace apparatus, which belongs in the supply room and which

other teachers may be waiting to use, in the shortest possible time?

16. make sure that apparatus I have borrowed is replaced in perfect working condition or do I depend upon the "next fellow" to clean and recondition it?
17. keep my classroom tidy, my desk well arranged, and my demonstration unencumbered with apparatus for which I have no immediate use?
18. let my chairman know at once when I accidentally break a piece of apparatus?
19. advise my chairman of what I will need in the way of apparatus long enough in advance, so that he may supply me with it with a minimum of inconvenience, remembering that he is the chairman in addition to his regular duties which do not include serving as my laboratory assistant?
20. really like my job, my subject, and the children I teach to the extent of: preparing my lessons thoughtfully and thoroughly; keeping posted on matters of scientific interest; subscribing to at least one science periodical and one educational periodical in my own subject field; joining a professional association; having a cheerful and cooperative attitude toward all with whom I work?

ALFRED D. BECK*

(*Chairman of the Junior High School Standing Committee on Science)

Books

Techniques of Guidance—Tests, Records, and Counseling in a Guidance Program, by Arthur E. Traxler, Harper and Brothers: 1945; 394 pages; 3.50.

The reviews of this volume which have preceded this belated one embody so many well-merited accolades and quotations that the present review can in its general outline be only repetitive and joyous report. It will attempt, however, to point up its remarks with details selected because of their relevance to New York City's guidance needs.

What administrator in charge of guidance, what teacher adviser or counselor will not welcome a book that combines as this one does a broad concept of guidance with up-to-the-minute data about tests and other objective and non-objective means of obtaining information about pupils? Twelve of the

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eighteen chapters of the book deal with an amazing wealth of such information. Notable in these chapters is the number of suggestions made for the *recording* and *use* of the data obtained about individuals. For example, forms are given for an interview record and for pupil questionnaires, and directions included for making entries on them. The book is rich in excellent advice, succinctly given in connnection with each major and many minor topics. An instance of this in connection with the interview record (see page 26) reads, *"Immediately after each interview the counselor should make a detailed written summary of the information secured. He cannot afford to depend for long upon his memory, nor should he, even if he could hold the facts in mind indefinitely; for a brief written record of the interviews which take place between pupil and counselor, and also between the counselor and persons who know the pupil will be an important addition to the cumulative record."*

The following chapter headings give an indication of the kinds of help available to advisers of individual boys and girls or to teachers of orientation classes who need to select and use instruments of appraisal: *Appraisal of Aptitudes for Guidance Purposes; Appraisal of Personal Qualities—Tests; Appraisal of Personal Qualities—Rating Scales, Anecdotal Records, and Behavior Descriptions; Planning and Administering a Testing Program for Guidance Purposes; Scoring, Organizing, and Reporting Test Results; Case Study Procedures in Guidance.* In respect to each topic, principle and theory are combined with practical suggestions that have the unmistakable flavor of experience. Take, for example, the appraisal of aptitudes, where in a few pages one reviews the high points of which a counselor needs to be aware in using aptitude test results. And the generously annotated list of tests eases the problem of choosing among them because it cites reliability and validity whenever they are available, and gives costs and publisher in sufficient detail to make further inquiry unnecessary.

Although the two thirds of the book devoted to information-getting devices constitute its greatest attraction for counselors because of their need for just such material, the other six chapters must not fail to receive attention here. For one thing, the section on staff organization (see pages 6 to 9) is commended to administrators of our large New York City schools because it gives consideration to such vital issues as the relationships between guidance and administrative functions, the closer relationship between guidance and teaching, the drafting of counselors from the teaching staff. The chapter entitled *The Role of the Teacher in Guidance* includes answers to many questions as realistic as this: *"What Can I Do About the Guidance of the Pupils in My Classes, Whom I See in Groups for Forty or Fifty Minutes Each Day, Most of Whom I Did Not Even Know by Names Before They Entered the Class, and About Whom I Know Little or Nothing?"*

Finally, to those whose numbers we wish were fewer who identify guidance exclusively with remedial measures, is recommended the chapter entitled *Guidance in the Adjustment of Individuals*, which indicates by implication if not direct statement that the general use of such constructive guidance methods as are suggested in this book would undoubtedly reduce the need for remedy.

Dr. Traxler's *Techniques of Guidance* should stand as a companion volume to Dr. Bingham's classic *Aptitudes and Aptitude Testing* on the book shelves of every school for ready reference by all guidance functionaries.

ELSA G. BECKER

Judging Teachers of Basic French Courses by Objective Means at the University of Wisconson—1919-1943 by Frederic D. Cheydleur, University of Wisconson, 1945; 31 pages.

Although supervisors observe thousands of lessons each year and write countless reports, little has been done in the way of establishing definite criteria for the evaluation of what is unquestionably the most important factor in a learning situation. The present study is an attempt to supply this deficiency, at least for the first four semesters of college French. It is based on the work of some 175 teachers among 30,000 students over a period of 24 years (1919-1943).

With characteristic energy and thoroughness Professor Cheydleur illuminates all of the various aspects of language teaching: with characteristic modesty and open-mindedness he states: "The author wishes to make it clear from the outset that he makes no claims of infallibility for the procedure he has evolved. . . . " However, he believes that his method of evaluation is clearer, more reliable and more "convincing than the usual subjective plan used by departmental heads. . . . "

Fundamentally, his criterion of the effectiveness of a teacher is "the end result," for, as he says, "by their fruits ye shall know them." In other words, the efforts of the teacher are reflected in the achievement of the student.

To test the teacher's effectiveness a departmental examination was employed which compared "favorably in reliability with some of the best known educational tests." In rating the intelligence of the student, the "grade point average" was accepted "as an important index of intelligence, i.e., the power to learn or to profit from training."

Some of Professor Cheydleur's findings corroborate generally held opinions, others seem to disprove accepted notions. Among the more interesting conclusions are the following:

1. There is a very slight superiority on the part of female students. (However, Professor Hermon is cited as proving that sex differences in native capacity and achievement are negligible).

2. In a general way, "there is a decrease from semester to semester in per cent of dropped, poor, conditioned, failed, and incomplete grades, while there is a noticeable increase from level to level in per cent of excellent, good, and fair grades." In other words, the teacher of an advanced class would almost invariably make a better showing than the teacher of a beginners' class.

3. The reading method yielded better results than the eclectic method (in French 1a and 1b).

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4. Better classification, "in reducing the variability of achievement provide the instructor with a greater opportunity of effective teaching."

5. The teaching efficiency of women appears to be slightly superior to that of men.

6. ". . . the American-born teacher has decidedly the edge on the foreign-born teacher. . . . " (The mean for the American-born teacher with star classes is 67.8; for the foreign-born teacher 50.8. The mean for the former group with star and non-star classes is 53.5; that of the latter group is 49.7.)

7. ". . . small classes are desirable in the reduction of fatalities especially in the first semester courses . . . it would appear that teachers would be more apt to obtain good results in a small class than they would in a large class."

8. ". . . in general, good teachers will show high efficiency in their work as indicated by departmental examinations and at the same time will reveal high efficiency in their work as shown by the results of standardized tests."

"While the degree of mastery of the subject by the student forms the basis for the rather objective method of judging the quality of insrtuction, there is clear-cut evidence to prove that our top teachers have personality, character, and a sound knowledge of their subject. Furthermore, they love it, like to impart it, know how to impart it, and insist on good work."

Professor Cheydleur presents an array of data which cannot be ignored. His analysis is clear and convincing. Furthermore, the virtue of his method of measuring teaching effectiveness lies in the fact that it can be applied to other subjects beside French.

For the school administrator in a large system, however, there are a number of additional factors of considerable practical importance which possibly lie outside the scope of a college study. In evaluating the effectiveness of his staff the school executive has to consider age, health, marital status, economic condition, number and age of children at home, and the character of the supervision the teacher enjoys (or suffers). All of these rather personal factors make a vast difference in the poise, serenity and morale of the teacher, and consequently in classroom effectiveness.

An examination of the influence of the above-mentioned factors on the average classroom teacher in a larger city system would be an extremely interesting and profitable research project for some ambitious supervisor.

THEODORE HUEBENER

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Can Your Child Really Read?* Why Our High Schools Are In Collapse

GEORGE H. HENRY†

Two world wars and a ten-year depression have not sobered educators so much as has the human material with which they work. The difficulties they have in dealing with it have harassed them to distraction and caused them to grasp at any fad that promises relief. When educators write for one another they envelop their statements in a cloak of pedagogic lingo in order that as public servants they may not be charged with lack of faith in democracy. Yet it is common gossip inside the profession that at least a third of the entire secondary school population—grades nine to twelve—are incapable of mastering the stock tools of learning (reading and writing) well enough to profit from textbook instruction.

THE NON-VERBAL THIRD. This is no diatribe against the schools. No method and no brilliance of teaching can improve these youths enough to make any appreciable difference in their literacy. By testing any graduating class or any high school in the country, the skeptic can see for himself what is an old story to teachers: that a third of the high school cannot read on a fifth-grade level or write a coherent paragraph reasonably free of errors. So awkwardly and painfully are the three R's used by these fourteen-to-eighteen-year-olds that "learning" as it is commonly understood cannot take place, because communication of orderly thought cannot proceed between teacher and pupil.

The pupils who compose this lower one-third are not to be confused with the mentally backward (a far smaller group comprising only about five per cent of a school or less). The great majority of them are normal, wholesome, even talented, responsible youth. They are, to put it simply, non-verbal. Of the six and two-thirds million on the high school rolls in 1940, easily two and one-half million belong to this group.

Nor should they be confused with that "one-third of a nation" of New Deal fame—the ill-housed, ill-clothed, ill-fed. This non-verbal group comprises rich and poor alike.

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† Principal of a high school in Dover, Delaware, which combines college preparatory and vocational courses, and is attended by both rural and urban students.

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SLIDING STANDARDS. It is difficult to explain to a parent of a boy or girl who stands not so very far below the school average that the average itself may have fallen dangerously low; that the many standard objective tests—the stock-in-trade of most schools—are forever creating their own averages. Tests in reading comprehension and word usage, for instance, are given to tens of thousands of youngsters and the average is taken; against this average your high school child is measured. If his score is 72 and the average for ten thousand others is 60, your boy is considered "safely" and strongly above average. If the average or "norm" declines to 50, then of course 60 is well above. Under this relativist system—above-average, average, and below-average—any progressive deterioration of our schools could actually hide the intrinsic performance of your boy in language. This is exactly what has happened.

In the decade 1930-40 the high school enrollment increased over fifty per cent (from 4,399,000 to 6,600,444) while the number of boys and girls of high school age was advancing only seven per cent, and this change brought with it into the high schools the most undifferentiated, heterogeneous mass of humanity ever to be assembled for higher education in the history of the world. In 1940, 1,228,246 diplomas were granted, almost twice as many as in 1930. In that interval, since there was little employment available for boys and girls, all that was left for them to do was to stay at school till they graduated. Inevitably the "norms" went scaling downward, so that by now, as every classroom teacher laments, "average" (called age-grade equivalent by schoolmen) in respect to these "standard" tests does not necessarily indicate enough language ability on the part of the pupil to carry on the traditional verbal procedures.

Democracy is thus brought face to face with the cold fact that one-third of our citizens, although literate by census standards and able to read and write well enough to get along, are impervious to book learning, to the detection of the use of words as weapons, and are therefore ever a prey to demagoguery and a potential threat to democracy.

CRISIS IN EDUCATION. Change the tradition of education for these millions? Nineteenth-century democracy, culture lovers, and the populace as well, cry in horror, "No! Discrimination." The state accepted long ago the principle that all pupils, bright and dull, were entitled to the same education. But the right to learn does not seem

to carry with it the ability to learn or the willingness to learn—as school is now constituted. Thus the old concept, liberal education, is helpless and insufficient in dealing with the greatest human experiment of all times, and as a result high school education in America has virtually collapsed.

Ask any teacher. She knows. Then read some authorities, such as the report of the Modern Language Association of America (1940), the Regents' Inquiry of 1938, or even the Carnegie Report issued in 1932 (on conditions before the depression, when high school was twenty-five per cent more selective than it is now). Then read any educator writing for educators, keeping the secret in the family. J. Paul Leonard, one of the experts from Stanford University, writes in *The School Review* in 1945: "Not more than *half* of our youth can profit by such academic study." We principals realize the state of affairs. You parents have not heard of it yet, though the problem is the most discussed one among educators. We read that "46.6 per cent of the ninth grade made scores in rate of reading lower than the normal for the sixth grade." (McCallister, *Remedial and Corrective Instruction,* 1936.) "Why, more than half of the boys and girls in this section have never learned to read," writes a Maryland superintendent about high school sophomores—who have had nine years of schooling! (The May 1945 *Journal of Education.*)

"Remedial reading" has been tried as a remedy (fully a million 15-year-olds being taught reading over again from scratch); "guidance" has been tried; but the problem remains unsolved. It is obvious that for these millions there can be no high school education worthy of the name; but there they are—in high school! Secondary education has been debased by a sentimentalism that would make of the high school a kind of benevolent institution in which everybody will be granted a diploma for his ego's sake, and where youth may go to wait out a depression, or a reconversion after war.

SIDESTEPPING THE ISSUE. One standard answer to the problem at the moment is vocational training. Two and two-thirds millions were taking it by 1942. For boys and girls in states which by law compel children to stay in school it at least fills their time. But it is not the answer to the problem of preparing them for citizenship —or even to the problem of preparing them to find jobs. And in the battle of vocational vs. liberal education which is now raging among the educators—the storm over progressive education having

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run its course—neither side seems fully aware that the nature of this third of our high school population is the cause of the controversy, as it is the chief cause of nearly all the controversies over low standards and the automatic promotion policy, and of the controversy over whether or not to teach grammar (this lower third cannot learn it). Both the advocates of vocational education and those of liberal education sidestep the real issue.

Not even the recent Harvard Report recognizes the *nature* of this new high school population. The report of course is aware of the radical change in the high school population, with its concomitant mass of less-gifted pupils. It does point out too that "the chief problem is not to discover the right general education for these able young people but for the less gifted . . . for the great majority in other courses, those who are in those courses precisely because of their lower facility with ideas." But in the use of the term "less gifted" it does not recognize, it seems to me, the large extent of this non-verbal group I describe, and particularly how unreceptive it is to anything like the English the report supposedly advocates for all. As I see it, the report has in mind chiefly (1) the great middle group of pupils (50 per cent, maybe); (2) the gifted, college-deserving group (20 per cent roughly). It is the presence of yet another group that has foundered the whole high school—the non-verbal (easily 30 per cent).

Vocational schools arose in great numbers chiefly because they offered the easiest, the quickest, and indeed the only way (as schools were hamstrung by the book tradition) to dispose of millions of young people who after eight years of schooling could not read well, and who threatened to undermine the whole structure of higher education. But, when a boy cannot read or write in fair fashion, why put him through four years of "mastering" a trade that he can learn in a few months outside, as industry has amply demonstrated during the war, especially when these assembly-line jobs are constantly being eliminated or changed throughout a worker's lifetime? No public school could hope to keep up with these vocational fluctuations.

At present, reconversion is dumping the out-of-school teen-agers back upon the high school. The Philadelphia schools may serve as a sign of what is happening in the rest of the country. "Of 30,000 young people in the 16-year-old age group, about 10,000 are working" (or about to lose their jobs!) is the estimate of Dr. Cushman, associate superintendent of schools, according to the Philadelphia

Record of September 11. Philadelphia educators are enticing these young people back by granting school credit for past war work. Schoolmen justify this baiting because school offers the pupils what is called "related work"—consisting mostly of books that these pupils have trouble reading. The blunt truth is that these pupils left school either because they could not get along or because they instantly saw that they might as well be paid on the outside for a vocation as stay in school *doing the same thing for nothing.*

THE LEAST COMMON DENOMINATOR. The usual non-vocational solution of the problem is to adjust the work of the other two-thirds to meet the capacities of this lower third; that is, the book obstacle is allowed to remain, but the effort to overcome it is eliminated. This has been a natural solution because it is generally recognized that, for most high school pupils, sustained effort (practice and drills) does not seriously modify their handling of language. For instance, in nearly twenty years of teaching English I never had an upper classman in high school who, after having repeated the course a second year, showed perceptible improvement. "If at first you don't succeed, try, try again" surely does not apply to a pupil striving to master the mere tools of learning after eight years of trying in the elementary school and two more in the high school.

Under such circumstances, what is the school principal to say to the parents? In our democracy, being promoted in school has ceased to be a matter of education alone; it has become social in significance. Even the reading of books has become a fetish out of all proportion to its worth. Failure in school is thereby wrapped in hypocrisy. If your child fails, his teacher or principal usually tells you that he can do the work but just does not apply himself. But nine times out of ten this is a dishonest statement. The truth is, generally, that the child cannot do the work—that he is a member of this slow-reading third. To say that he does not apply himself is an old gag of the ever-appeasing schoolman, and parents never catch on to it because they want very much to believe it.

For most parents regard passing in school as a child's democratic right, irrespective of whether the child is educated or not. Their primary wish is to have their adolescents pushed through in order to secure an entry into the higher positions that mere possession of a diploma is supposed to bring. Unless a teacher wishes to be picked to pieces by parents, she cannot fail a third of her pupils, and so she

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passes nearly everybody in this lower third for the sake of harmony —and also for the sake of the pupils themselves, who, she well knows, should not be there in the first place. This parental pressure on the teacher and the principal—after all he is a public servant, not a private headmaster—is contributory to the collapse.

A NEW BASIS. One way out of the dilemma is to build high school education around a clearcut fact: ninety-five per cent of the entire school population, whether verbal or not, possess some gift or talent that is above average. It is just as important to uncover this gift for the non-verbal third (along with the others) as to teach reading and writing; maybe it is more important.

For though nature has not democratically handed out intelligence, it has blessed nearly everyone, even this third which is lowest only by verbal measurement, with enough skill in some direction to create inner satisfaction to himself and service to others. The search to "know thyself" (one's talent) should be the prime business of a school. It is not the same thing as specialized vocational training—in courses constantly becoming obsolete—which is the present substitute for this exploration.

There is not so much relation between native intelligence and one's ability to read and write as the objective test faddists suppose. Furthermore, there are many people who are facile in pronouncing words and writing them into sentences, but who are not very good at "thinking"; and others who have high IQ's yet who for the life of them cannot master the mechanics of pronouncing and writing words. In fact, it is not yet decided by most psychologists just what the ability to read or the inability to read does represent—to what extent it measures one's power to think. Different tests put different valuations on these two things. We now know that there is a type of thinking with word symbols, involving manual manipulation plus the imagination to project a finished plan in picture form—the kind of intelligence it takes to build a boat from blueprints.

So if your child does not do well in school, it is not necessarily a calamity. It probably means he is just not good at book learning. Since school requires a mastery of the tools of book learning, commonly called the fundamentals, he may seem a misfit there. In school there's not much to try except books. Sixty-six per cent of school is spent on academic subjects suitable for college entrance. (National Survey of Secondary Education, 1932.) In New York the Regent's

Inquiry (1938) found the proportion to be seventy-five per cent. But the misfits in life run much fewer than the misfits in school. People try all sorts of things until they get into what they like and can do well. If earning power is your gauge of the value of education—it is with most parents—remember that your child has a chance of being a contractor, or a practical engineer, or a manager of a dress shop—at $5,000 a year or more—even if he never finishes school. These jobs have nothing to do with reading a book or organizing thought into words at page-length. If you prefer a non-financial criterion, be assured that he may become a happy, useful member of society—though probably not as soon as if his school helped him to discover and realize his special potentialities.

The one thing that will be most likely to detract from his value to the community—that may even make him a menace to it—is that he may be insufficiently grounded in citizenship. Inevitably the American high school is for all youth the training place for citizenship. To millions citizenship must be taught without books or it will not get taught at all.

How our schools can be reshaped to give these non-verbal millions a training in citizenship suited to their capacities we do not yet know. But one thing is known: a lack of vision prevents us from using already available means and services in the way that they should be used for these non-verbal millions. In proportion to the colossal motion picture industry in our midst, films for teaching citizenship are ridiculously scarce. Last summer, in a seminar in the social studies, sponsored by American University, it was brought out that visual aids in this field are almost non-existent.

NEEDED PIONEERING. In this day of large-scale production there is no reason why a film library for a school should not be as well stocked as the regular library. The radio, too, is used half-heartedly by schools because it is difficult to synchronize school class hours with outstanding commercial programs. Some colleges are planning their own radio stations; in truth, every state-wide school system should have its own radio station for exclusive use for schools. Also, during the past decades the Boy Scout camps, private summer camps, and C.C.C. camps have demonstrated their worth, yet the public schools neglect this method for dealing with non-verbal youth. What incredibly little use is made of the bus by schools,

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in a country with many more automobiles than the rest of the world put together! A school trip is still an "event."

Besides, the arts—in contrast to vocational training—are simply not being explored for their possibilities in teaching citizenship to "slow" readers: a school that possesses a hundred recordings and transcriptions is extremely rare; the planned use of the theater by high schools is practically unattempted; the schools' utter neglect of the available, splendid, cheap reproductions of paintings of the American social scene amounts to delinquency. For example: one important function of English is to sharpen the awareness of pupils to their everyday surroundings, chiefly by means of sensuous imagery, notably that of poetry. But non-verbal pupils cannot be reached by such abstractions as words. In spite of both these facts, no American high school that I am aware of systematically substitutes for English the numerous stimulating lithographs which are felicitous for the purpose and in which our country, at present, surpasses all other nations. Finally, the community school itself as workshop is only gingerly being tried, for administrative routine of mass education stands in the way.

Here, then, is a sketch of some pioneering that needs to be done. But it will not be done unless we Americans first recognize that because of the pressure of this non-verbal third on an educational system which is helpless to deal with them, precious little education, even for the others, is now going on.

General Education In A Free Society: Implications for Academic High Schools of New York City*

DAVID H. MOSKOWITZ†

GENERAL VIEW. The Harvard Report has been variously received by groups of teachers in terms of the extent to which areas of study are emphasized or curtailed in the educational spectrum, in terms of vested interest, or educational ideology. In terms of the total educational spectrum, the Report is noteworthy and important

* The Harvard Report.

† Assistant Superintendent, High School Division.

because an authoritative group of serious college professors paused in their quest for a reorganization of a college curriculum pattern to look back and reflect upon the educational antecedents of their prospective students. They inevitably became aware of the "explosive" growth of the high schools in preceding decades, with the attendant problems of heterogeneity, complexity, enlargement of curricular offerings, and variety of purpose.

In this approach, the Report is but one "chapter" in a series of discussions on the subject appearing in such books—to mention only a few recent ones—as Barzun's *Teacher in America;* Van Doren's *Liberal Education;* and the N.E.A. Educational Policies Commission's *Education for All American Youth.* The Harvard Report may be said to occupy a median position between the advocates of the completely prescribed curriculum and the free elective system.

PURPOSE. The Report states: *"We are faced with a diversity of education which if it has many virtues, nevertheless works against the good of society by helping to destroy the common ground of training and outlook on which any society depends."*

This common outlook is the conception of the Western tradition—the conception of a dignified, autonomous, free individual in a free democratic society. To achieve this common outlook, the Report advocates a general, elsewhere called a liberal education. General education indicates *"that part of a student's whole education which looks first of all to his life as a responsible human being and citizen."* Related to general education, rather than contrasted with it, is special education which indicates *"that part which looks to the student's competence in some occupation."*

General Education is characterized not in terms of subjects or content, but in terms of *"method and outlook."* There is the problem of combining fixity of aim with diversity in application to meet diversity in ability, interest and purpose. The unity of aim, again, is to equip the prospective responsible, participating free citizen in a democratic society with the knowledge, the skill, the will, and the attitudes essential to maintaining the democratic tradition and to equip him with the diposition to accept change for the progressive growth, enrichment, and improvement of free society.

This purpose is to be achieved through a common body of knowledge and experience, through what is sometimes called a *"core-cur-*

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riculum" or a program of *"constants."* Three common areas are set forth:

1. *The Humanities*: *"setting forth man's inner aspirations and ideals"*;
2. *The Social Studies*: intended to *"produce an understanding of the social environment and of human institutions in general, so as to achieve the individual's proper relation to society"*; and
3. *The Natural Sciences*: looking toward *"an understanding of our physical environment, so that we may have a suitable relation to it."*

The attributes to be cultivated in the free citizen in a free society are *"to think effectively"*
"to communicate thought"
"to make relevant judgments", and
"to discriminate among values."
These are to be the outcomes of general education embraced in the three large areas of knowledge. Experience is to enrich knowledge through a program of extra-curricular activities, shop work, work-experience, and community relationships. In all, the common core of knowledge and experience is to constitute not less than one-half of the total educational program.

THE ACADEMIC HIGH SCHOOL. In our high schools, we find these recommendations and purposes congenial to our educational ideology and compatible with our practices. We favor general education at the secondary level, with special education, itself of general purpose and outlook, deferred to later years. In practice, we meet the general recommendations (not in all details) that half the program include the three areas of knowledge: The Humanities: English, Foreign Language, Art, Music; The Social Studies: Civics, Modern History, Economics, American History and Institutions; Natural Science: General Science required of all. However, except in the requirement of instruction in arithmetic for those who have not mastered the basic knowledge in this field, there is no requirement of additional science and mathematics to aggregate the three units in this area as advocated in the Report. Experiences in the areas indicated above are amply furnished in our high schools. Extra-curricular activities and the administration of school functions are an impressive area of experience in democratic processes and responsibility.

In practice, we are committeed to the principle of educating *all* American Youth, with a diversified, rich program of curricular offerings; a program modified and adjusted to meet the abilities and purposes of our heterogeneous student body; a general diploma for those with special interests or for those whose education is to be terminated at the secondary level; an enriched program for the specially gifted; a program for those who plan to go to higher institutions after graduation. Our large cosmopolitan high schools provide a more extensive program than is feasible in the smaller size high schools of most communities. Classification of students according to ability groupings—for the slow, for the normal and for the intellectually gifted—with concomitant modifications of syllabi, is widely practised. Remedial instruction for low ability groups is matched by honor classes for high ability groups. But for all we are committed to the development of those traits of character and ethical outlook, through knowledge and experience, which minister to the development of the free citizen in democratic society, a responsible individual equipped to think effectively, to communicate thought clearly and cogently, to make relevant judgments, and to discriminate among values.

UNRESOLVED PROBLEMS. The preceding section sets forth our commitment to the program of education of *all* American youth, and the steps taken to meet these purposes. There still remains much to be done in the area of differentiated courses of study for pupils of varying ability and purpose. It is perhaps safe to say that the task our high schools do best is that of preparation for college. Here the content, the method, and the intellectual capacities of the students are brought into harmony with the anticipated goals of the prospective college entrant. We have, however, made adjustments and modifications adapted to the non-college bound youth with less conspicuous success. A more radical approach to newer content and method, arrived at independently in terms of the interests and general life purposes of this group is urgently needed. Unfortunately, the modifications usually start with existing courses of study into which changes, dilutions, altered time requirements and similar piecemeal steps are introduced. A fresh approach to an entire four year sequence in English, for example, would seem to require a re-appraisal of the general purposes of this discipline in the life of the student and in the needs of adult citizenship. The content, the

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method, the time arrangements and the emphases might then be built accordingly.

As a partial administrative approach to the realization of these ends, a greater degree of flexibility and freedom for curricular change has been accorded by the introduction of the general diploma. There still remain in some quarters misunderstanding and misapprehension as to the meaning and use of the general diploma. There still remains, too, the problem of the considerable fraction of the student population which does not survive until graduation. The situation calls for an analysis of the best type of education for daily living which these students can be influenced to profit from in the one or two years until the compulsory school age is reached, with the added purpose of inviting longer participation in educational experience, wherever possible. The aforementioned unresolved problems are distinct but not unrelated.

School experiences affording practice in democratic processes to enrich the knowledge of democracy have been extended significantly in recent years. Pupil participation in the management and financial control of student affairs and in school undertakings, the free exercise of the rights of assembly and speech in forums, in discussion of school functions, in the organization of student councils in school and in inter-school groups, in current events, in public issues facing the adult world—all of these are exercises and training in citizenship responsibilities.

Intelligent listening, discrimination and appraisal, the weighing of evidence and the discernment of propaganda in this age of ready access to newspapers, magazines, and radio programs are the daily necessity of an alert citizenry. Much more remains to be done with these instruments of life in a democratic society.

Related to the development of the free citizen in a democratic society is the whole problem of intercultural education or human relations; and the field of school-community relationships. Much progress has been made; many good programs are in operation. There remains the problem of making the potentially better available everywhere.

While there is agreement on the prescribed half of the program, there is the problem of guidance to help the student in the wise selection of the elective half of the program. The competing spheres of language, science, mathematics, art, music and the industrial arts present the need for wise choices and intelligent planning. In this

era of science, technology, and atomic energy, it is evident that larger numbers of students may find fruitful outlets for their interests and talents in the fields of science and mathematics.

All too many programs are influenced by tradition. Let me cite, as an example, the prevailing practice of studying two foreign languages—which is a holdover from the college requirements of a past era—when a better program for most students, even those going to college, would embrace four years of a single foreign language. A rich industrial arts program for most boys and girls still is conspicuously absent. And the cultural possibilities of the arts—fine and applied art, music, sculpture, photography, and so forth—and their contributions to interesting leisure activities, not to mention vocational possibilities, deserve more adequate attention. To repeat, adequate and wisely directed guidance has a more important role to play in the complexities of program selections.

There is need for a reappraisal of the field of commercial education; except in respect to the commercial skills, which determine employability, the commercial curriculum which commands the interest of a large number of students should include provision for a more general education.

FUTURE PROSPECTS. The history of thought is filled with examples of the impetus to inquiry and to new knowledge furnished by the discovery or invention of unifying concepts. To mention briefly only a few:

Darwin's *Theory of Evolution*
Newton's *Law of Universal Gravitation*
Einstein's *Theory of Relativity*
Mendeleef's *Periodic Table*

All previously organized knowledge in these respective areas fell into a new context, a new pattern, which improved existing knowledge and furnished the basis of hitherto unformulated applications. In the area of social action, the late Wendell Willkie may be credited with having dramatized the concept of "One World." Perhaps in this concept we can detect the essence of a new unifying principle for education: the organization of content, methodology, and purpose to achieve through education the free citizen in one world, dedicated to democracy, self respect and mutual understanding, based upon decency, ethical conduct, and good will. Only through general educa-

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tion in a free society can we "secure the blessings of liberty to ourselves and our posterity," with peace, security, and justice for all mankind.

Some Basic Implications of the Harvard Report for Junior High Schools

JACOB THEOBALD*

INTRODUCTION. The Harvard Report confirms, in many respects, the best thinking that has been done in our school system in the last twenty-five years. We mention just a few of the major contributions: "Facing the Facts," "The Articulation Report," "The Report on Maladjustment," "The Junior High School Survey," "Changing Concepts" and "Guiding Principles in Curriculum Development." Surely we have had no dearth of educational thinking. Ours is the age-old problem of bringing about desired changes, of translating thought into action. For the most part that costs money, and money is short.

The Harvard Committee expresses the familiar hope that its report will provoke discussion and lead to action. It makes the very significant statement that in a democracy "a place must be left for criticisms of aims and methods so that errors and ailments may be corrected and new and better forms reached."

It is in this spirit of self evaluation that the recommendations of the Harvard Report are considered. It is a welcome opportunity to take stock of the overall educational situation that confronts us. In the light of the Harvard Report we shall direct our thinking toward some of our most pressing problems.

I. We are told that we should do more for those who do not learn readily from books.

They are Dr. Conant's primary concern, and ours, too. The greatest single problem confronting the junior high schools today centers in these so-called slow learners, their curriculum and securing the kind of teachers they need.

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Our city was the first, in the days of Dr. Maxwell, to recognize the mentally retarded child and to make special provision for him in ungraded classes now called CRMD classes. They have stood the test of time.

They owe their success to good planning. Registers do not exceed 22. The school program provides a better balance between bookwork and handwork. The teachers are specially trained; they accept the teaching of slow learners as worth while. Continuous supervision is provided. The salary schedule is higher.

In substance, Dr. Maxwell reasoned 40 years ago, there are children so far out of line with their grade that their needs are better met in special classes taught by specially trained teachers.

Since Dr. Maxwell's time the problem of what to do with the slow learners has grown to major proportions, until even Harvard is aware of it. We have them with us a longer time because the compulsory school age has been raised materially. Also, we have accelerated the slow learner group immediately above the CRMD level until many thousands now find themselves in higher grades where they are seriously out of line with both curriculum and teachers. Instead of 2% we have from 15% to 20% who need the kind of provision Dr. Maxwell so wisely anticipated.

In the twenties, Dr. Ettinger in "Facing the Facts" pointed out that in the group immediately above the CRMD level there are many for whom special curriculum provision must be made. Before experimentation was completed, homogeneous classification was ordered throughout the city. Thus these slow learner groups were brought together without the benefit of a modified curriculum and adequately trained teachers.

In the thirties the Articulation and the Maladjustment reports set up a new and revolutionary ideal of retardation. Hitherto the pupil was retarded if he was overage for his grade or he failed of promotion, or he failed to meet grade standards. Now the pupil was retarded if he didn't measure up to his own capacity, that is, promotion came if he did the best he could. Continuous progress was advocated. True, these reports did point out the conditions that would make the new ideas workable. But these necessary conditions are only now beginning to be met.

During the last five years continuous progress has been taken to mean continuous promotion by chronological age, even though regression has actually taken place. The result has been that our upper

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elementary grades and our secondary schools have in them many thousands two and more years retarded in basic common branch skills.

The adjustment classes in the junior high schools originally set up to provide for these slow learners have not on the whole been able to cope with the numbers and the conditions, despite occasional outstanding teachers and schools, because they have not enjoyed the administrative advantages of the CRMD classes. Rotation of teachers has not proved successful. A year ago we exchanged 22 Adjustment classes for 22 CRMD Adjustment classes, placing them under the CRMD division. These classes now have licensed CRMD teachers, and a program that gives promise of better adjustment. But the supply of these teachers appears to have dried up.

It would appear that we should expand the present CRMD teacher license to fit this larger group of pupils in the light of present day broadened objectives and curriculum. We should provide the administrative and supervisory set up now given to the CRMD classes and teachers. We should establish separate licenses on the elementary, the junior high, and the senior high school levels. The name CRMD should be dropped and another such as Special Common Branches (SCB) substituted.

II. The report advocates all day, all year community schools.

The findings of the Harvard Committee as to the serious educational handicaps that go with the change from urban to city living apply to us with particular force. In our case the movement into the city of a lower economic group has been accompanied by the migration out to suburban communities of a well-to-do and middle class population. The result is that predominantly low income areas have expanded considerably and new ones have developed.

The schools in these "low income" areas are variously known as difficult, problem, and tension schools. We prefer the term "low income" because this carries with it the host of implications that limit the best efforts of the school. Chief among them are: poverty, sub-standard housing, disorganized homes, decreased vitality, limited cultural background, insufficient parental care, lax community standards of law and order, and, to the young, increased temptations to go wrong. Concentrated in these areas are large masses of pupils who belong to the slow learner group. They run as high as 50% to 60% in some schools.

To the schools in these areas the children bring their aggregation of problems. Their behavior, even towards teachers, too often falls short of reasonable expectation. They are several years below grade in achievement and mental age. In large part they are not ready for the conventional program of information and knowledge which the teacher has been trained to offer. Out-of-school learnings and teachings are often harmful. Truancy, delinquency, gang fights, take up a disproportionate amount of the principal's time. Personnel problems are a constant worry. Teachers and principals accept appointment to these areas reluctantly.

It should not be unsaid that there are in these schools also pupils who enjoy wholesome family influences, who are intelligent, who are outstanding in scholarship and who have all the finest qualities of character and courageous citizenship to be found anywhere in most privileged areas. We need to express, too, our high regard and respect for those teachers and principals who have patiently and devotedly carried their children through the hardest times these schools have ever experienced. They need to be understood, appreciated, encouraged.

We who are chiefly concerned with adolescents from 12 to 18 years of age, may wonder at times how it has come about that standards of behavior and scholarship have fallen so low. Consider all the negative learning experiences that have taken place in those first twelve years before we get them. Reflect for a moment on what it means for a child to be left with little parental guidance during those impressionable first six years, when behavior patterns are taking form. Add to this the possibilities during the next six years, the elementary school period from 6 to 12. *Balance the* 1,100 *hours per year spent under the wholesome educative forces of the school with the* 7,700 *hours under the learning and teaching influences of disorganized homes and unfavorable community surroundings.* Is it strange that the teacher has to struggle for acceptable behavior, that she gets small returns in scholarship?

It is no limited conception of the all-day school that will give these homes and communities the lift and the urge to start their children in the way they should go. Nothing short of a community power house can hope for success. To finance it we shall have to go far beyond the school budget and into the wider realm of city planning. Direct lines must run from the all-day school to the nursery, the health center, the settlement house, the placement bu-

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reau, houses of worship, the "Y's," the theater, the movies, the radio, the agencies that insure welfare, law and order. If this bigger school can become the active center of democratic planning for a better living and working together by the adolescents and adults of the community, our schools will take hope where now there is despair.

We have presented thus at length this wider function of the school, because with your help and encouragement this dream of a better life in our low income areas will move toward reality. The beginnings have already been made. It is important that adequate personnel be provided, that the work be well done in a few schools rather than thinly spread over many.

III. The Harvard Report is critical of the College Preparation which teachers are getting. It stands for broader training. It notes the absence of any continuing interchange of information and influences, and excessive technical requirements for the teaching license. It sees the need for recruiting more teachers who are dedicated to teaching.

The teacher supply in the junior high schools has not been adequate in number and in quality. In the low income areas the call is for teachers who believe in their pupils, consider them worthwhile as persons, who have faith in their capacity to learn, who have patience with their shortcomings, who can capitalize on their interests and capacities. They must be committed by practice to a broader curriculum, and objectives and more effective learning procedures. At the same time they must secure growth in the basic skills. Such teachers need to have more than verbal information and knowledge about teaching. They should give evidence of performing classroom functions successfully. The supply of such teachers is very limited. We have already written into our license requirements the broader training suggested. *We are not sure that the supply will be forthcoming.*

It should be to the mutual advantage of the teacher training colleges in our city and our school system to establish much closer cooperative working relationships than exist at present. We need to know and understand each other better as working concerns. It should be possible to institute more effective internship of prospective teachers and to pool resources in the common solution of our many problems.

Similarly the question may well be raised whether the Board of Examiners should not likewise establish closer continuous contact

with both schools and colleges, to insure a more adequate appraisal of teaching in its functioning aspects.

Those charged with the great responsibility for securing sufficient personnel, of the right kind, should give this implication most serious thought. If we desire to recruit teachers of ever higher caliber we must share with our colleges and universities a common concern in the success of the teacher-training program.

IV. The Harvard Committee tells us that in our democracy we need particularly to develop in all people the abilities to think effectively, to communicate thought, to make relevant judgments, and to discriminate among values.

We shall do well to give particular attention to the importance attached to thinking in practical situations, to talking things over in a democracy, to making relative judgments on the basis of broader areas of experience, to making good choices between values. The contrast is with the conception that the school may stop on the level of information and knowledge. Not mere talk but action is sought. Feelings of good and bad enter into decisions.

Our schools have always regarded the ability to think as an important objective. At the turn of the century we sought to develop it through subjects like grammar and mathematics, or even Latin. In the first decade of the Twentieth Century we set up the problem method, but the problems were closely confined to subject areas. Later we used the term *project method*, which brought in the idea of purpose and related subjects. More recently we have used the more general terms, *activity* or *experiential learning*. This report gives effective thinking a large place, applying it to all areas of learning and emphasizing the elements of practical application especially in citizenship involving better human relations. The good life in our democracy is set up as paramount in effective thinking. The religious motive is not overlooked.

We need to bear in mind, however, several basic limitations to this process of effective thinking. It is not an easy goal to attain, particularly with regard to the slow learner. Note our common experience with popular forum discussions, the tendency to leave things in the air, the overabundance of talk, the rarity of definite conclusions. This is true of many otherwise well informed and highly regarded people. There are relatively few effective discussion leaders who get somewhere with their audiences. It is not merely that discussion

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techniques are not sufficiently developed. Only wide experience, broad knowledge, sympathetic understanding, clear vision, and a high purpose can enable the leader to advance the audience toward desirable accepted goals and action.

The workshop and the forum are recent expressions of this desire for more effective thinking. The teacher of to-morrow will be better prepared to meet this new responsibility because she will have been more completely educated in the process itself. In the meantime we shall do well to shake off some of our oversensitivity to criticism, and our fear of entering a few controversial fields. At the same time we need not lose our common sense as to what is proper and good.

V. The Harvard Committee points out that any test of intelligence gives very incomplete grounds for judging a person, that actual accomplishment and the judgment of teachers are necessary. Individual growth is dependent not merely on intelligence. Expectation, interests, will power, and fidelity of purpose have a large place. The influence of environment is a variable that affects the reliability of the I. Q.

Although intelligence testing has been with us forty years we still tend to regard the I. Q. as a trade secret. We too frequently use it as a label to distinguish those who are suitable for education from those who are not, the wanted from the unwanted. Too often we take a superficial look at the I. Q. and disregard mental age. We fail to remember, particularly in low income areas, that the group intelligence test is a test of reading and that general intelligence may be ten points higher. In the guidance of students to higher schools we have not begun to give the rightful place to the personal qualities apart from intelligence that make so much for success in later life.

As administrators and teachers we will do well to review our over-all guidance program with a view to insuring the fuller consideration of the factors that enter into individual growth. As the conditions are provided that make it possible to meet individual needs better than ever before, we may expect readier acceptance of personnel accounting.

VI. The report asks more serious consideration for the teacher, and the improvement of teaching conditions. It refers to the killing weight of numbers, demands on nervous energy and sheer physical strength. Smaller classes are advocated.

If the teacher is to know her pupils as individuals and provide

for their individual differences, one way to do it is to give her smaller classes. In our junior high schools we can also give the teacher fewer different pupils to teach. Substantial progress is being made in both respects. It still remains to get the benefit, in terms of individualization, that will result from an annual instead of semi-annual reorganization.

Not so long ago our junior high school classes averaged 39 and the ceiling was 49. During the past three years we have made considerable progress in this respect. We may look forward to an average of 31 with a ceiling of 36 or 37, if current budget requests are granted.

But reducing class size is only one of several ways of providing conditions favorable to individualization. Teaching in secondary schools is departmentalized. We can reduce the number of different pupils the teacher has to meet by having her teach two or more subjects. Current junior high school examinations call for a knowledge of common branches as well as a major subject. We have also used the programming device of replacing two-period subjects taught over two terms by four-period subjects taught one term.

One major step remains to be taken in the move toward meeting individual needs more effectively. That is to reorganize junior high school classes on an annual instead of semiannual basis. By so doing we will give the teacher the same pupils for two terms instead of one, insuring twice the present opportunity to know the individual pupil, to study his needs and his interests, to provide for and to measure his growth.

As to demands on nervous energy, it should be remembered that with the advent of the mental hygiene movement teachers were given the added duty of redirecting behavior. They are not yet prepared to do so. Nor are classroom conditions sufficiently conducive to success.

In tension areas extreme maladjustment and behavior are sufficiently frequent to point to the need for additional so-called opportunity schools. These are now being planned.

As conditions are now, not only is there undue nerve strain, but an excessive amount of time has to be given to a relatively small group of children whose extreme behavior requires special treatment.

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VII. There should be a single salary schedule. Teachers should be paid more adequately.

Our salary schedules were originally graded on the principle that they should offer promotional opportunities. They were stepping stones that led from the elementary, to the junior high, to the senior high school.

To the degree to which there were formerly marked differences in the required professional training there was justification in the earlier distinction. Today, however, qualifications are the same. The problems of understanding and teaching early adolescents are such that teachers are needed who will devote their professional lives to their solution. There is no higher or more important training. As it is, the difficult period of early classroom training is scarcely completed when the exodus to high school takes place. The early adolescent and the junior high school teaching staff are placed at a disadvantage.

The best interests of the junior high schools call for a single salary schedule or one so nearly in line with that of the senior high schools that teachers will not be lured away from their important calling.

VIII. Teachers should be paid more adequately if the best people are to be attracted into the teaching profession

The Harvard report makes no specific reference to New York City conditions. No doubt the salary situation is even worse elsewhere in the United States. However, it will be conceded that even in New York City salaries must retain their relative attractiveness as compared with those in industry and in the professions.

Our national debt of 250 billion dollars can only be paid off on the basis of higher incomes. Round about us, in industry, material salary readjustments are being made. Inroads have already been made on the teaching profession. Teachers cannot be trained over night. A teacher supply of high quality is imperative. No mere temporary expedient will insure it.

The present salary schedules became law eighteen years ago. The salaries fixed were sufficiently high to insure a supply of teachers that lasted twelve years, after about 70% of those who had prepared for teaching were failed in the examinations. At the time the present schedules were enacted into law, state income taxes were negligible and teachers were exempt from national income taxes. The general increased cost of living has further impaired the relative attractiveness of teaching from the lowest to the best paid positions. All have been affected.

It is in place to ask, who should be most concerned that the salaries paid to teachers be fair and that a constant supply of persons best qualified be encouraged to go into teaching?

In practice we have in the main left this for teachers to do. Time and again they have gone to Albany, to City Hall, to One-ten. They have had to resort to group pressure. Invariably they are asked "Where is the money coming from?" The present salary schedules were the brilliant exception. They came about largely because of one man who had unbounded belief in the worth of a good teacher and who at the same time was a leader in the group of citizens who had to pay the taxes. The schedules were the result of a realistic study of what was needed to attract the best into the educational field. The teachers themselves had little to do with it, except as their living conditions entered the picture.

A fresh supply of teachers, of the kind the Harvard Report suggests we should have, cannot be produced over night. We must act with promptness and decision.

We conclude this self appraisal of our larger administrative needs in the light of the Harvard Report as we began it. *The greatest single obstacle is the failure to provide adequate financing that will enable us to carry out the educational program that we need and appear to want. Until that is done we shall continue to labor under the strains and stresses that have beset us for the last twenty years. Who will assume this large responsibility of securing the financial provision without which no substantial progress can be made?*

Tolerance For Intolerant Literature

FRANK J. COYLE, Brooklyn Technical High School

Mr. Jerome Carlin in his *Racial Stereotypes in Our English Textbooks* in the January, 1946, *High Points* touches upon an interesting problem. Briefly stated, he finds that many of the literary gems which we submit to our children "present a member of a specific race or religion in a stock characterization which labels as inferior

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not only the individual character in a fictional world of the story, but also, by extension, all members of his group." As a cure for this evil he proposes that "racial stereotypes should be completely eliminated from our textbooks" and "many texts can be put in order merely by a few minutes work on the part of the publisher's editor armed with a blue pencil."

It goes without saying that racial stereotypes can be used as propaganda and may be planted with evil intent. Most stereotypes are written, however, to meet the accepted, though in many cases erroneous, concepts of the people for whom the literature was intended. There are such things as groups having characteristics. It is the educated person who has the ability to judge whether a writer is coming near the truth, whether the characterization is vicious or just an excuse for good writing. Our duty as educators is to take literature as it is and train our children to read with discernment and judgment. The easier way out suggested is to cheat them of this heritage and to deprive them of the opportunity to develop critical judgment in discussing the problem suggested.

THE PROBLEM. English teachers are faced with the problem. It is not the fault of literature. It is we, the educators, who are beginning to shift our sights. Literature means more than the pleasure of drugging one's mind out of the present. The social studies are getting more objective. Note the interesting controversy that Mr. Nosofsky and Mr. Goodman have been having in *High Points*. (And doesn't the discussion of whether Italians are musical fit right in with what we have been saying!) We want the youngsters to find the great truths through literature. Some have thought that the study of literature must be dusty. Their definition would coincide with that for antiques; i.e., nothing more than a hundred years old is literature. Others, that the accumulation of facts about titles, authors, and characters should be garnered like scalps at belt. Teachers studying for the next license are included in this group.

You see, Mr. Carlin is not so wrong in recognizing a fact as he is in imputing a cause and suggesting a cure. Much of our literature is warped. To write at white heat one has to be prejudiced. *The Connecticut Yankee* is the shrewd American that many like to think all Americans are in "the land of the brave." An Englishman reading Kipling realizes that a Tommy could take on any twenty natives single-handed, and he sighs with magnaminity as Kipling concedes

that a Fuzzy Wuzzy could be brave, and grunts with satisfaction that Danny Deever will be hanged in the morning.

We who read English are doubly fortunate. We can join His Majesty's brave forces to drive the skulking savage and treacherous French from around Saratoga way with Fenimore Cooper or rejoice with thrills as C. S. Forester or Kenneth Roberts transports us with a bedraggled army, helped by Lafayette's brave French, to beat back the mercenaries of another despotic monarch of the same lineage. Of such stuff is literature made.

LITERATURE. Our concern in English is with literature. Tolstoy's *War and Peace* has been called the greatest novel yet written because it is the most inclusive and deeply veracious picture of human life that we have in fiction. *"Literature and the other fine arts serve the goal of education by enabling the student to feel the feelings of others. Literature communicates to the present generation and to each individual the thoughts and feelings, the joys and sorrows, the hopes and fears, the tragedies and comedies, the visions and regrets of innumerable men living and long dead,"* says H. N. Wieman of the University of Chicago. We must not stop with letting the student learn of the thoughts and feelings. The student must learn to evaluate critically what he reads. No book in itself can instill democratic attitudes in the student, nor will it do for the teacher to hand down high principles. These principles have to be worked out by the pupils themselves. What an effective springboard the racial stereotype makes!

Should one be surprised to learn, as Mr. Carlin points out, that Columbia University's Applied Social Research finds that popular light fiction is "exaggerating and perpetuating the false and mischievous notion that ours is a white, Protestant, Anglo-Saxon country in which all other racial stocks and religious faiths are of lesser dignity?" Without quibbling over the fact that light fiction may not be literature, or pausing to argue as to just how one would describe this country to the Man From Mars, may we record the opinion that there is nothing astonishing in being confronted with the fact that the *majority* of the reading public in this country likes to read that its kind is the cream of the earth! May we not save social research time and expense by hazarding a guess as to what a research in German popular-light fiction, or Spanish popular light fiction, or Soviet popular light fiction would disclose?

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Our findings in Germany would not surprise us, for there the press was controlled and all such works were inspected for indoctrination. In America we have a free press, but more to the point, a free market. Publishers (and we can include motion picture producers and radio script writers) print what they will, and the policy as to what they will produce is directly geared to what the public will accept. Right here there are some who will rise with murmurs of protest about the controlled press. First, let us say that we are not talking about news or comment. Our contracts with book publishers and motion picture producers have always reinforced the belief that a theme must, first of all, be "box office." Violations of this public temper are bound to come a cropper as did Lillian Smith with *Strange Fruit* and Mae West in her modern version of *Salome*.

STEREOTYPES. The fact is that these characteristics, whether based on fact or not, make it easy for our writers (or playwrights or actors) to pluck a sympathetic chord in the reader's conditioning, saving the writer a lot of effort in creating a characterization. Let us say our plot calls for a kidnapping. If the writer says a "swarthy short man," we type the character as an Italian because of all the previous build-up. Thus the author, by a trick, has snared us into believing that he knows how to write. It means that we are nodding our heads with him in the quickest manner—especially if we are not Italian. Indeed, why should he do it the hard way? After the kidnapping has been discovered by the scared Negro, who foolishly obliterates the evidence because his mind is on the numbers racket, a dumb Irish cop comes in to flirt with the cook and filch cigars from the box on the table. Thus with a dearth of creative writing the story proceeds along the well oiled grooves of the reader's prejudice. And who is the reader? Why he is the student that we had in class not so long ago.

Are we to find horror by proxy for all Irishmen because one English teacher finds an Irishman speaking with a brogue calling on blessed saints. "Are there not many Irish cops?" the Irishman would likely say. "As for the brogue, I'm a little proud of me own, and calling on blessed saints is done by all good Irishmen!" When it comes to calling an Irishman stupid it might be a difficult thing to do face to face, but it could pass in a good story, particularly if the Irishman reading the story imagined that the Irishman in the

story came from the other end of the island. In Hollywood the men must be tall and the women short. In literature our Irishman, it seems, must be pugnacious and be susceptible to graft; our Jews money lenders; our Scotch parsimonious; our Germans brutes; our Negroes ignorant menials; our English nobility asses; our Indians savages who speak in monosyllables; our Italians gangsters; and our Mexicans not to be trusted posteriorly.

WE DEPLORE. As open-minded cultured people we deplore these facts because they are generalizations; but we cannot deny them any more than we can deny that the attitude of a people will affect its literature. Some of these characteristics find their origins in truths which have been exploded by the very nationalities or races in question. There is truth in the fact that Jews through the ages have been money lenders and "good business men," and fellows like Lou Holtz, Willie Howard, George Jessel, Harry Hirshfield, and Montague Glass help keep the ball rolling. There is truth in the fact that Negroes are fools, menials, and superstitious, and fellows like Bill Robinson with his "Bojangles," and Rochester, cash in on that. It is true that most of us have in mind a role for the Negro, just as most of us laugh at Brooklyn whenever it is mentioned on the radio. We can wish with the stage critic Welden Davis that "white directors would stop making Negroes act like colored people." Negroes have a hard time attaining top billing, and when they do they still are cashing in on the fact that they are Negroes despite any desire that it should be otherwise. George Washington Carver, Marion Anderson, and Paul Robeson come to mind.

The Scotch and the Irish have had their share of stereotyping. Some of these characteristics, unjust when made generalizations, are based on fact. The Scotch are a frugal people, and Sir Harry Lauder was as close as the paper on the wall about which he sang. Harrigan's *Daniel Mulligan* evolved from the ward politics of his age. It seems, too, that we in our times have had a few Irishmen around town who, shall we say, were careless with other people's money. To recall at least two: One paved his private courtyard with city time and material, and the other had a mysterious tin box. So we cannot deny that some Irishmen are grafters, and the writer who casts one in such a part may be prejudiced or may be resorting to history. John L. Sullivan with his "I can lick any man!" helped the pugilistic denotation, an attribute which could be verified in fact

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at Celtic Park thirty years ago, or perhaps to this day in St. Mary's Park in the Bronx where the gentle game of hurling is played.

To set the stage for the Italian libel we had the Mafia and Al Capone, making it convenient for writers to depict blackhands and racketeers as coming from the Italian race. This sort of thing is the background for Damon Runyon's conclusion, ". . . most of the participants are usually Italians and you would think that racial temperament would develop some heat from any competitive effort."

Apparent departures from "box office" are put forth with a well fortified resistance to any resentment bound to arise. Anne Nichols in *Abie's Irish Rose* sugar-coats and burlesques the issue so that two factions come away from the play believing that they are noble and any other faction is amused at the stupidity of the first two. William Perlberg, the producer of *The Song of Bernadette*, told the writer that he consulted the local Catholic diocese during the production and obtained a letter of commendation to prove it. He felt that the picture would be a success because the story would please Catholics, was written by a Jew, Franz Werfel, and was directed by Henry King, a Protestant. He probably neglected the Negro angle because it does not count much at the box office. Negroes will go to see what Whites let them see.

Perlberg deserves credit for the chance he took in making the picture and everyone in the industry recognized the chance even though he was making a "best seller." Perlberg is a realist. He met the prejudices and used them as they were. He did not stick his head in the ground and refuse to learn about them. Question: Assuming that Franz Werfel's *Song of Benradette* is literature, have we English teachers who could handle it in the classroom?

LITERATURE AS INCUBATOR. We are becoming aware that literature may be an incubator of ideas, that it even creates false notions while affording pleasure. What is alarming is that an English teacher would suggest as a remedy the methods of the very forces whose hands he seems to see behind all this. He would suggest the elimination of all texts that contain racial stereotypes. That discards a lot of good literature! Or he would use a blue pencil and eliminate characters or change the names of characters. One is led to inquire whether he would investigate the character of the author. That is the next totalitarian step!

There is no doubt that certain groups are continually stereotyped

and that the portrayal is often unfair. There are undoubtedly cases where the treatment is a deliberate attempt to harm a group. Most of these are probably the nasty evidence of a philosophy shared by some writers, and the body of readers for whom the work was intended. It is the part of Mr. Carlin's statement that "by extension" all other members of the group are labeled inferior. This seems to be an unwarranted assumption. Even granted that an author, in his mind, included all other members, why should the child who reads, ipso facto, make the same extension. Does this not imply some kind of poor social climate in the classroom

A poor teacher might be pardoned for avoiding *The Merchant of Venice*. A competent teacher could no doubt do much good with the discussion of the Jew's problems. It is not the problem of the Jew as a villain that bothers as much as the continual harping on "Jew" throughout the play. In a neighborhood where sinister forces are at work and where the children have been trained to name-calling this might be too stiff a dose of heavy food for the delicate digestive tract of democracy. Once the Chief of Police of Chicago stopped this play and did a great deal for those who would use its theme perversely.

EDUCATION THE ANSWER. No good will come from eliminating most of literature (as we should have to do if we followed the findings of the Columbia report quoted). Our problem is in educating this generation in our care to see, as Mr. Carlin sees, that there is injustice besides good in literature, and that it is dangerous to be a lazy reader. Poe wrote about Jupiter in 1843 before emancipation. He was very gentle with his Negro when we recall that he was a Southerner. Why? Maybe the teacher has read *The American Dilemma* and can tell us something about the period after emancipation. Would some boy or girl care to report on *Carter* by Don Marquis, or *Black Boy* by Richard Wright? The fact that the Negro is depicted in an inglorious light is a golden opportunity to cultivate a realization of the truth that the Negro still is not accorded equality. Would suppression of this fact in literature help solve this problem by the coming generation? Negroes do play foolish for the white man and carry luck charms—as travel and observation will reveal. Is it our duty as molders of youth to conceal these facts from them, or to be thankful that the truth can be put before them where he can help them analyze and gain an insight

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into the forces which they must combat if they are going to be on the side of righteousness? Should we pass up the study of *Uncle Tom's Cabin*, a great instrument in improving the conditions of the Negro because it approached the truth? Should we deny our colored students the privilege of reading about a white, Anglo-Saxon villain for a change?

Alexander Woollcott once said, *"If there is anyone in this audience who believes that 'So and So' is pouring out poison and nonsense, don't ask that he be shut up. Let him talk."* Are we to admit that our pupils, who have been under our tutelage for years, cannot handle these matters with good judgment? Or are we to admit that we are not competent to handle these questions in the classroom? Should we deny the child literature on such a basis, knowing full well that he is exposed to it at the newsstand?

Any good teacher should be glad to tackle the challenge of a play like *The Merchant of Venice* provided the children have had good teachers right along and that Shakespeare has a place in the course of study. The fact that the villain of a piece of literature is a Jew should not condemn it for class use, especially since such villains seem to be few and far between. Mr. Carlin objects to a piece of literature because it contains a usurious pawnbroker with Semitic features. What is he trying to imply? Will children believe from this characteristic that all "uncles" are Jews? Or will they conclude that all pawnbrokers are usurious—which might be nearer to the truth? It would seem to depend upon the teacher.

Our goal as seen from a scientific point of view is to let those ugly items of our heritage come out in the open where, by calm, judicial, scientific attack we can scotch them. Literature can help us to understand the thoughts and feelings of those who are in error. What scientific fact has a writer to show that an Irishman's skull is any thicker than anybody else's? How does it prove that a man is inferior because you call him a name? What place has racial distinction in a story of the American scene? Have we not now proof from the psychologists that the Negro is not inherently mentally inferior?

The wise men among us have had their eyes on the proper goal for quite a while, and we are getting there gradually. Some, the Thomas Paines and Garrisons of our ranks, become impatient at our slow progress. It is perhaps a hard thing to tell a Jew or Negro youth what equality of treatment he should get; to tell him that all right-thinking people are striving to get it for him; and

then to tell him that it will not be achieved in his lifetime. We must either rush out in a bloody revolution and risk picking up some other evils as bad, or keep our ranks in this revolution of education which is going on now. Revolution or evolution, let's have the populace educated for the proper goal.

Out of such discussions, plowed up by literature, will come this cultural climate that will make the next generation a critical discriminating people that will, with detached objectivity, twist the dial on the radio or toss the book into the incinerator when an unfair characterization unfolds. But we have a long way to go. Is the start to be made by denying the English teacher the very tools with which to point out the evil and so develop characters which will meet these problems head-on?

Science Education—A Vital Need for High School Youth Today

MAURICE U. AMES*

The atomic bomb and the tremendous, revolutionary implications of atomic energy should help bring home to the public and to educators that science is a controlling factor in modern living. Our food, shelter, clothing, health, communications, recreational opportunities, family and community life—our very existence is conditioned by modern scientific development. Without scientific progress we cannot hope for improvement in the health, standard of living, and recreational life of our citizens. The conclusion is inescapable, therefore, that the development of these concepts and attendant appreciations deserves adequate curriculum time.

SCIENCE IS BASIC. Not to give our youth a better understanding of the part that science is playing in our world today is to handicap them as citizens and make it more difficult for them to solve the economic, social, and political problems which will face them. Our atomic scientists, shocked by the lack of understanding and appreciation of the implications of atomic power, are coming down from their ivory towers and airing their views on the social implications of this

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new scientific development. Reasoning cannot be done in a vacuum and minus a background of facts and information. So, too, a real appreciation of the implications of atomic power either for war or for peace cannot be developed in the average citizen who has no background or understanding of the science of fuels, energy, and matter.

The subject matter of science is basic, core curriculum material because it relates to problems of living, to an understanding of our natural and industrial environment, to the conquering of disease and the maintenance of good health, to securing adequate food, shelter and clothing, to an understanding of modern transportation and communication, and to problems of the consumer. An insight into the point of view and method of approach of the scientist to problems is essential to our citizenry in today's wedding of technocracy and democracy. John Dewey wrote years ago: *"One of the only two articles that remain in my creed is that the future of our civilization depends upon the widening and deepening hold of the scientific habit of mind; and that the problem of problems is therefore to discover how to make effective this scientific habit. . . . Without ignoring in the least the consolation that may come to men from their literary education, . . . a scientific education can assure to man the progressive amelioration of his lot."*

ENERGY. One important index of man's standard of living in any period of recorded history is the amount of energy he can control and direct to his use. The amount of energy which has come under man's control with the development of fuels and engines within the past century has been revolutionary and has brought about revolutionary social and economic changes in societies all over the world. This concept is being brought to the fore again with the emergence of atomic energy as a force to be reckoned with in the foreseeable future. A knowledge of the nature of matter and energy by greater numbers of people should lead to better economic understanding and more peaceful solution of economic problems. The social studies teacher should, therefore, welcome the help of the science teacher in developing in our youth an awareness and appreciation of economic and social processes.

To say, "I don't need to know anything about the workings of an automobile so long as I can drive it," is a confession of scientific illiteracy by one who probably insists on enjoying the achievements

of modern science and technology, but does not mind being an ignorant consumer who retains blind spots in his perception of today's technological environment. This technology is an inextricable part of our culture today. The development of the whole man calls for an adequate science education for him.

SCIENCE'S ROLE. Our youth will adjust to their environment in accordance with the ideas they have of the world about them. A modern scientific approach envisages not a complacent acquiescence to a status quo, but a constant march toward progress and control of environment for the promotion of man's welfare. Disease, discomfort, and poverty can no longer be a part of man's inevitable lot because scientific advances show these are unreasonable and inequitable in a society which knows how to eradicate these evils. Diphtheria, scarlet fever, and typhoid fever are now under control and the conquest of tuberculosis, malaria, syphilis, and lobar pneumonia is definitely in sight. Few will deny that we can produce a sufficient amount of consumer goods to wipe out poverty and want. What we must solve is the problem of distribution and the development of an economy which is consistent with plentiful production. The scientists, however, do not determine moral worth or goodness. Understandings, skills, and attitudes derived from a science education cannot in themselves provide the panaceas for our individual, social, or economic ills. Other curriculum areas, in particular the social studies, make up the other members of a cooperative team which should try to meet the needs of our citizens.

SCIENCE AS A HOBBY. Applications of scientific knowledge and skills can also enrich the life of the individual in many ways. In addition to the many vocational pursuits open to those who acquire specialized scientific training, one needs contemplate only a few of the avocational or leisure-time activities like gardening, bird study, photography, astronomy, radio, motoring, and aviation—to realize the important contributions science can make in developing an individual to his fullest capacity.

SCIENCE AND NATIONAL WELFARE. The objectives of science education encompass also contributions to the general welfare of society. In addition to the values inherent in the study of the sciences for the average boy or girl, we should consider also the

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objective of keeping our nation in the van of progress by developing those specially talented ones who will become our scientists and technicians. In a letter dated November 17, 1944, and addressed to Dr. Vannevar Bush, Director of the Office of Scientific Research and Development, President Roosevelt asked, among other questions, the following: *"Can an effective program be proposed for discovering and developing scientific talent in American youth so that the continuing future of scientific research in this country may be assured on a level comparable to what has been done during the war?"* The answer, in part, rests on basic educational policy in the secondary schools of our country. To secure adequate numbers of trained physicians, engineers, chemists, physicists, biologists, geologists, and other scientists, we must initiate the program in our public schools. Dr. Bush reports, *"With mounting demands for scientists both for teaching and for research, we will enter the postwar period with a serious deficit in our trained scientific personnel."** Our educational program in part can be blamed for this condition.

For security reasons, as a war measure, and in the belief that certain understandings and skills would make our youth and thereby our nation more competent and effective in this scientific age, our high schools were convinced after Pearl Harbor that the sciences should be given more curriculum time. Let us hope there will be no recession in interest or in attention to secondary school science in the crucial postwar period ahead of us.

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* *Science, the Endless Frontier.* Report to the President on a Program for Postwar Scientific Research, by Vannevar Bush, Director of OSRD; U. S. Government Printing Office, 1945.

Great Teachers Never Die

LUCIAN LAMM, High School of Science
SAMUEL STEINBERG, Stuyvesant High School

The heads of high school departments who attended Superintendent Ernst's conference last January on problems of supervision heard an appeal for less formal and more inspiring supervision. Mr. Ernst referred to the example set by one with whom he had had but little direct acquaintance, but who has remained a legend to this day, and whose name is still revered. The reference was to Fayette E.

Moyer, chairman of the history department at DeWitt Clinton High School from 1914 to 1933, who passed away in 1938.

It was the good fortune of the writers of this article to have been students in Moyer's classes at Clinton, and later members of his department. Several years ago, in a textbook upon which we collaborated, we dedicated our book to Moyer "in appreciation of his inspiring example as teacher and as supervisor." Knowing and appreciating Moyer as much as we did, we grew reminiscent. In a nostalgic mood that followed Mr. Ernst's talk, we decided to review what this man meant to his contemporaries and why he has become almost a legendary figure.

* * *

THE PERSONALITY. Fayette Moyer started out as a teacher of French. It was by accident that he turned to the teaching of history. In the latter field he came under the influence—one might almost say the spell—of Arthur Mayer Wolfson, an outstanding teacher and supervisor at Clinton. Moyer inherited the chairmanship as well as the magic that had been Wolfson's.

The paraphernalia of Moyer's job were the marks of his personality rather than elaborate trappings and pedagogical machinery. He was hurried and nervous, tense and emotional, taking everything to heart, especially the troubles of the people in his department. His department office was almost always in disarray. Books and papers were strewn all over his desk; he said he couldn't work at his desk if everything was tidy. His handwriting was virtually illegible. We never had an office squad, and the teachers-in-training did little of his clerical work. It was an untidy, badly "organized" office, but what history was made in it! For it was the mecca of countless teachers in the school, who flocked to it at all hours to battle over the events of the day. The crowds were heaviest in that little office, and the discussions were hottest on those off-days when there were few pupils in school.

THE TEACHER. In the classroom Moyer was unique and exceptional. No one could be listless or uninterested. He got excited over everything he taught, and everybody got excited in turn. His enthusiasm before a class, even toward the close of his teaching career, was that of a novice. His apparatus and method were simple. Teaching with him was more an art than a science. It had depth

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rather than breadth. "Workbooks," mimeographed sheets, and review books were, therefore, anathema to him. It was the workings of the pupil's mind that interested him, and his passion for ideas was instinctive, deep, disciplined, just as his loyalty to ideas was absolute. He used to tell us, "The test of good teaching is what you do with the pupil's answer, especially with the *wrong* answer. What will you do with a *wrong* answer? *That's* where *your* ingenuity comes in!" He would hammer away at a pupil until a point at issue was resolved; yes, much as Socrates used to do to his astonished Athenians. He insisted upon impartiality and objectivity in the classroom. "You have no right," he said to one of us, "to attack the protective tariff before your class!" This from one who was avowedly an opponents of "protection."

Moyer had implicit faith in the power of facts and ideas. With him every lesson was a fact-finding expedition which, if honestly conducted, would point to a relentless truth—truth that would give rise to conviction. In turn, conviction would generate courage to act. But Moyer sought *all* the facts. A sin of omission was just as heinous to him as the sin of a teacher's positive bias or misstatement of fact. His complaint against the "political historian" was that the latter's under-emphasis of economic and cultural factors caused Clio to join the palace guards, making the Muse serve as handmaiden to vested interests.

Few teachers of history in his day did as much as he to stimulate thinking in the classroom, and the now familiar expression, "thought-provoking questions," might almost be ascribed with more than poetic justice to him as their creator. A veritable army of teachers of American history (Moyer's special province of interest) was nurtured on his little pamphlet, *Thought Questions in American History*.

Moyer accented intellectual inquiry. He was primarily not interested in the doctrines, dogmas, or conclusions to which intellectual inquiry should lead. He was not an ideologist. This very preoccupation with the intellectual process, rather than with the doctrines that the process was to provide for the students, explains Moyer's ability to get along with teachers of different "isms" and faiths. They must give evidence of intellectual thinking and intellectual integrity, above all. Moyer could not tolerate intellectual dishonesty, compromise with fundamental principles, or unprofessional-mindedness. He felt hurt when he encountered poor teaching; he was almost mortally wounded by dishonest teaching.

THE SUPERVISOR. The character of Moyer's supervision was equally distinctive. True, he insisted upon decent standards, upon correct, legible, and prompt reports. But he never made a fetish of anything. And he was delightfully sincere and informal! He never foisted himself upon a teacher whose class he wished to visit, but who wasn't feeling up to par. While observing a class he would frequently shift his position, sit, stand, walk about the room, or perch himself on the radiator cover or on the shelf atop the students' book lockers. He was an active participant in the class discussion, helping an inexperienced or confused teacher over the hurdles, challenging a pupil's statement, or reinforcing a point made by the teacher. Following the visit, he would fish out his scribbled notes from a mass of papers in his coat pocket and chat with the teacher. The conference might be held any place where some privacy was assured: on stairway landings, in the boiler room, in the auditorium gallery.

His observation reports, prepared without the benefit of check lists or printed criteria, emphasized the good and the *essentially* bad, and underscored whatever was experimental. These reports were many-dimensional, and possessed an all-enveloping value. They related the individual not only to his lesson, but to his profession and his future. They afforded the individual a perspective.

We loved Moyer because of his warmth and sincerity. He gave his teachers much leeway. He respected the individual, whether student or teacher, and never discouraged free discussion, or even a biased viewpoint, *provided* the teacher kept his bias out of the classroom. Our department meetings were occasions to which we looked forward, not only because of the intrinsic worth of the topics discussed, but more perhaps because of the free and informal atmosphere that prevailed. We called him "Chief," an epithet he apparently liked. We not only tolerated his mild aberrations and peculiarities, but did everything to help him. He was never allowed to mark Regents' examination papers, and the redoubtable Irwin Guernsey, whose vocabulary was the most vitriolic this side of Albany, threatened the Chief if he offered to do a single paper. He was on intimate terms with all in the department, and was always concerned about their personal problems and the problems of their families. His approach to the younger teachers was truly that of a father. If he had good news for any of us, he would make a frenzied rush to whatever part of the building he could find the

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teacher, and, though breathless, whisper with exhilaration, "I've just heard you're going to be licensed!" or even, mind you, "I hear *all* your pupils passed the Regents' exam!" His laughter was disarming: genial, ingenuous, complete, the uproarious laughter of an infant. Rapturous as he was over a teacher's achievements, he was known to become prostrate with grief over bad news. He shared joys and sorrows. He became part of you, you of him.

It used to be said that Moyer could have had a high school principalship had he wanted it. Whatever the reason, he did not want it. Teaching was to him a calling of which he was proud. He often boasted that the first assistancy was "the best job in the system." Certainly the respect and encouragement he won from the two principals under whom he served in the old Clinton building—Dr. Tildsley and Dr. Paul—would have assured him rise in the system. He was happy where he taught, and commanded the respect and admiration of the entire faculty, whose spokesman he was on numerous occasions. About ten of his teachers became first assistants over the years. All of us have tried to imitate him. Most of us were infected with the virus of Moyer's humanity, but some recovered too quickly.

THE DEPARTMENT. The great measure of success and enjoyment that Moyer had in his job was not without its thorny side, however. People are wont to generalize about the fame of Clinton's history department. It was actually not at all a department of uniform merit. It had its incompetents, deadheads and loafers, as well as its towers of strength. It contained arch-conservatives and ultra-liberals, shrinking violets and raging bulls. There were those whom Moyer had chosen with great care, and others who were "wished" on him. Few men could have handled this assortment of personalities with the tact, patience and forbearance that Moyer displayed. Few men could have retained, as well as he did, their poise and calm in the face of heartaches that we knew he suffered from troublesome teachers and from some pretty bad teaching.

The thorny side was evident, too, in the battle of issues and opinions that accompanied, and followed in the wake of, the World War. First it was pacifism-versus-preparedness and the clash of pro-Ally and pro-German leanings. We were startled to learn from him that some had questioned his loyalty or, as he put it, his "soundness on the war." *His* loyalty or soundness—this man to whom the

principles of Jefferson and of Lincoln were a way of life! Then the issues of the war and of its sordid aftermath bore even more heavily upon him. Some of his teachers took sides violently, and some were attacked and pilloried. That was the era of the emergence of Bolshevik Russia, of nation-wide titanic labor struggles, the rise of teacher unionism, the Lusk laws and loyalty oaths, and . . . Aaron I. Dotey. Moyer was steadfast in the support of his teachers. He might disagree with some of them—and he did—but his sense of justice was too deeply rooted for him to make common cause with the self-appointed vigilante element in and out of school. He was then, as he was throughout his life, a true Christian: a man of humility, but not humble; a man of charity, but not maudlin; a man of obedience, but not cowardly.

* * *

TWILIGHT. The move in the late 1920's far uptown to the monumental palace that faces Van Cortlandt Park never brought Moyer an easy adjustment. The curse of bigness was overwhelming, and the magnificent distances never appealed to him. He disliked being closeted in his inner office, and missed to the point of pain the intimacy with his teachers that he had enjoyed in the old Clinton on Tenth Avenue. Mark Hopkins now sat at the end of an electrically-operated log!

Moreover, a feeling of anxiety which had plagued his whole life now bore him down. All his life he lived in other people and in ideas. That is why he was so brilliant a teacher. His nervous laughter, his absorption in other people and in ideas were escapes from himself. Favorable circumstances, that is, responsive and affectionate teachers and students whom he had known in the old Clinton building had enabled him to rise to supreme heights. His enthusiasms, his vigor before a class, and his will to live were still undiminished toward the close of his career; yet he suffered a swift decline. He was unhappy in the new palatial milieu. Rightly or wrongly, he deplored the loss of his best teachers and the absence in the new building of that intellectual eagerness and alertness among his pupils, such as he had gloried in when Clinton was downtown. The outside world absorbed him little, and he had to turn upon himself. But the *self* was not strong, and, therefore, it disintegrated. This is the secret of the sad arc traced by his life story.

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AFTERMATH. Whether he would be happy in his job today is a matter of speculation. He belonged to an era into which he fitted. Only a decade or so has passed since his retirement, but those few intervening years have created a new world, a world as alien to Moyer as the Atomic Age would be to Thomas Jefferson. At a time when schools are expected to become positive agents of social reconstruction and to assume burdens hitherto shouldered, or completely ignored, by other agencies in the community, when we are interested in methods and goals and things . . . things . . . things, Moyer would feel bedeviled. *We have set up a Moloch of scientific apparatus in our schools and meticulously devised administrative controls. Big, hard words for big, hard things that don't produce Moyers. And nothing could be more ludicrous than attempts to "study" or "measure" the personality and professional promise of prospective school supervisors by means of so-called psychometric methods, "projective" methods, Rorschach inkblot tests, and, heaven knows, what not. These don't produce Moyers, either!*

High Points

THE ANTIQUARIAN'S CORNER

J. Donald Adams, whose quotations and remarks on the teaching of literature were discussed in last month's Antiquarian's Corner, has replied to the Antiquarian's request for clarification:

"Of course there are teachers who greatly stimulate the pupil's reading interest; I was fortunate to have more than one of that sort myself. But I do believe the wrong kind of teaching can have an equally blighting effect."

No quarrel can be had with the proponent of so fair and balanced an opinion, but the Antiquarian repeats his invitation to his colleagues to engage in polemics with those authors and critics who condemned all teaching of literature as dull, uninspiring, and blighting. Meanwhile, the Antiquarian will continue his explorations along the by-paths.

The Antiquarian feels that the appreciation of literature read in the schools involves a triangular relationship of book, pupil, and teacher, with the last named often of tertiary importance. It would be very difficult indeed to kill a love for books which has been

fostered in a home where good books are associated with the most pleasant memories of childhood.

George Gissing, whose studies of Dickens show the greatest understanding of that author, recalls how he became acquainted with his novels;*

"In one of those glimpses of my childhood which are clearest and most recurrent, I see lying on the table of a familiar room a thin book in a green-paper cover, which shows the title, Our Mutual Friend. . . . *Eager talk about it fell upon my ears; and with it was associated a name which from the very beginning of things I had heard respectfully, admiringly. Charles Dickens, Alfred Tennyson —these were to me as the names of household gods; I uttered them with reverence before two of the framed portraits upon our walls."*

Few of the books read in the secondary schools were written designedly for pupils of high-school age. Not all the values in them are apparent to the high-school pupil, not even if the teacher tries to set them forth. Years later, if ever a pupil rereads the books, he may find things in them of which he was not even dimly aware when he first read them. He may then wonder why the books weren't taught in a way that now seems to him proper, forgetting that he is transposing the judgment that comes from added experiences and maturity to the immaturity and inexperience of younger days.

Christopher Morley, in writing about the familiarity with which he greeted certain "catchwords" jotted down while he was listening to his teachers' lectures at Haverford, remarks that it took him fifteen years of vigorous living to fill the "catchwords" with meaning.* Paying tribute to the work of two of his teachers, Francis B. Gummere and Albert Elmer Hancock, Morley wonders afresh *"at the patience and charity of those who go on lecturing, unabated in zest, to boys of whom one in ten may perhaps, fifteen years later, begin to grasp their meaning."*

The Antiquarian too sometimes marvels at the ability of a teacher to impart some of the meaning of *Hamlet* to pupils whose limited range of experience touches so little upon the underlying philosophy

*Dickens in Memory, in *Critical Studies of the Works of Charles Dickens* (New York: Greenberg, Publisher, 1924).

*The Autogensis of a Poet in *Plum Pudding* (Garden City, New York: Doubleday, Page and Company, 1923).

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of the play. It is J. Donald Adam's opinion that "*many have had Shakespeare turned into a mental allergy simply as a result of stupid, unimaginative high school instruction.*" Yet the opposite must also be true: Margaret Webster in *Shakespeare without Tears* relies upon those who have read Shakespeare in school to form the basic audience.

Many teachers do not relish teaching Shakespeare, not because they are unable to impart imagination and fire, but because they weary of the struggle as they try to overcome the barriers set up by many of the pupils. They may have had an experience like the one encountered by the Antiquarian when he taught English for the first time a few years ago as an Ancillary. There was a young lady in the class who seemed exteremely interested in the work of the first few weeks. At book-changing time, a number of boys delivered a few sets of thin blue-covered books which they deposited on the floor. Peering over her desk, the young lady gazed at the title, *As You Like It*. She raised her hand to inquire, "Is that by Shakespeare?"

"Yes," the Antiquarian replied, adding, "And I think you'll like it."

Whether it was the effect of the information received or the antiquity of the professorial wheeze, the young lady sank into a pre-Sinatra, certainly not a pro-Shakespeare, swoon. At the end of the period she confided to the perplexed Antiquarian that if the class were going to read Shakespeare she could be counted out for the duration.

It would be a triumph to relate that by dint of intelligent, lively, imaginative, and sympathetic instruction, the Antiquarian converted the recalcitrant pupil into an admirer of Shakespeare's plays. Alas, he can make no such report. At first he attempted to diagnose the case which began to evince alarming symptoms as the young lady's absences increased and her infrequent appearances became more and more lugubrious.

"No," she affirmed, "I have never read Shakespeare, don't want to read him, and I won't read him." The Antiquarian patiently inquired, "How can you tell that you are not going to like the book if you've never read of any Shakespeare's plays?" All he could learn was that her friends had told her some very lurid tales.

Without paying undue attention to her in class, the Antiquarian occasionally observed her as he taught. He tried dramatization and

spoke about the great actors and actresses who considered a Shakespearean role the climax of their careers. He tried all the suggestions in an excellent book on the teaching of Shakespeare, and since he knew that almost everybody in the class was a movie fan, he spent much time on the movie versions of *Romeo and Juliet, A Midsummer Night's Dream,* and the Elisabeth Bergner-Laurence Olivier production of *As You Like It*. The young lady's face still clearly expressed the refrain, "But I don't like Shakespeare."

The Antiquarian relived a visit to Stratford-on-Avon where he had seen productions of Shakespeare in the Memorial Theatre; he exhibited pictures, played records, devoted little time to "pedantic questions" and much to the romantic elements of the play. There was still no response from the young lady who didn't like Shakespeare. Her work for that part of the term was a total loss and she came to life only after the books were changed again.

It amazes the Antiquarian to see how many pupils are fond of drill and "pedantic questions," how many pupils consider digressions upon the inspirational and deeper meanings of a book as time-wasting. Especially was this true in the Latin and Greek classes. The Antiquarian recalls vividly that when his class in Virgil reached the famous line, *Sunt lacrimae rerum et mentem mortalia tangunt,* the pupils were asked to explain the case of *rerum*. No one shuddered, no one realized that the line which summarizes the philosophy of Virgil and expresses the "sense of tears," the poet's compassion for mortal woes, was being used as a text for a syntactical question.

Years later, when the Antiquarian really understood what Virgil was saying, he might have reflected that the line had been maltreated. However, did he really know it at the time? The critics whose judgments were cited in the previous issue may have formed them in that way by investing their youth with the understanding of later days, as if they were the same persons when they first received the impression and when they afterwards reinterpreted it.

Winston Churchill once tried to explain his unfortunate experiences with the classics by the following supposition:*

"Perhaps if I had been introduced to the ancients through their history and customs, instead of through their grammar and syntax, I might have had a better record."

*A Roving Commission: My Early Life (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1941).

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When the Antiquarian began to teach Latin through the medium of Caesar, he too wanted to introduce the pupils to the history and the customs of the ancients. At judicious intervals and carefully chosen moments, he expatiated upon the customs and manners of the Gauls and Romans, compared the ancient and modern periods of history wherever there was a likely parallel, tried to make the story vivid and alive by having the pupils see the invasion through the eyes of the Gauls, discussed Vercingetorix as a symbol of a national hero resisting aggression, described with a wealth of detail trips taken to the places mentioned in Caesar's *Gallic War*, read to the pupils pertinent passages from Tacitus and Gibbon. At the same time, the Antiquarian paid due attention to the required translations and prose composition but he did not stress gerund-grinding and syntax. One day he read to the class one of the magnificent short stories by Naomi Mitchison in which Romans and Gauls appear as living human beings. At the end, one boy raised his hand. The Antiquarian beamed. Here was a pupil, he thought, who was going to ask for the book so that he could read further. The Antiquarian received his come-uppance when the lad, a little bolder than his fellows, inquired:

"When are you going to teach us Latin?"

The Antiquarian frankly does not know what can be done with those pupils who turn into rebels against authority, independent souls, whenever they are asked to read a book. The Antiquarian still knows a classmate who was and is a prodigious reader of all types of books but who confesses that he looked with disfavor upon books which he had to read in school, just because they were required. Yet he did like, out of all the books read in school, Carlyle's *Essay on Burns*. The Antiquarian leaves this aspect of the problem to the psychologists.

In another field, the Antiquarian will close with his experiences in the study of the sciences. In his earlier years, the Antiquarian heartily disliked all of them. He could now offer in his defense the fact that they were not well-taught but in truth that would not be the entire explanation. Side by side with him, in chemistry and biology, sat another lad, who combined a passion for the classics with a love for science which was inexplicable to the Antiquarian. Furthermore, every week the class had the privilege of listening to a lecture by one of the most inspiring teachers the Antiquarian has ever heard, the great Charles Baskerville, who turned even the

simplest demonstration into a thrilling adventure. The Antiquarian looking backward might have said, "Ah, if only all my teachers of science had been like that!" Yet he must confess, as he tries to reconstruct the situation according to the interests of his youth, that not even if the shades of Archimedes and Galileo, of Faraday and Lavoisier, of Newton and Pasteur, not even if the entire galaxy of renowned scientists had appeared before him and beckoned him to the fields of science, would he have taken the road in that direction. Like the young lady who didn't like Shakespeare, he would have insisted, "I don't like science."

Much later, in the process of acquiring a few ancillaries, the Antiquarian decided to overcome his youthful prejudices. The fascinating books by Julian Huxley and J. B. S. Haldane opened new worlds. He has since taught three of the sciences once hateful to him. Such is his ardor that at times he wonders why some youngsters don't share his new enthusiasm.

Perhaps it's as Thoreau said, *"It takes two to speak truth—one to speak it and one to hear it."*

MORRIS ROSENBLUM — Samuel J. Tilden High School

(Mr. Cerf on Teachers)

In reply to a letter by the Antiquarian concerning the item in Mr. Cerf's column, *Trade Winds*, Bennett A. Cerf answered:

I assure you that I realize that there are many teachers in our schools today who are doing a wonderful job in introducing good books to the boys and girls in their charge. **All I meant to say in** my *Trade Wind* column was that there are not enough of them. I fully appreciate the fact that it's up to the public to provide more funds and make the teacher's job a little pleasanter and a lot more lucrative. I intend to do everything I possibly can in this direction in the years to come. (Signed) Bennett A. Cerf

(Printed by Permission of Mr. Cerf)

THE CLICHE EXPERT SPEAKS OF PEDAGOGY*

Q. Ah, Mr. Arbuthnot, how fortunate I am to catch you! For a long time, I've been wondering what your score would be on pedagogy.

* (With three kow-tows to Frank Sullivan.)

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A. Fire away, Mr. Dewey! I believe I can safely say, without fear of contradiction, that I am extremely well-versed in the field. As a matter of recorded fact, I have just delivered an address at a faculty conference.

Q. Splendid, splendid! Suppose, then, that I give you an examination.

A. Please, my dear sir! One doesn't give an examination; one *conducts* it!

Q. Of course. How careless of me! Let me conduct an examination on the cliches of pedagogy. Let's see, where shall I begin?

A. By defining your terms. One must talk *in terms of*. In terms of *felt needs*, in terms of *community needs*, in terms of *the ideal curriculum*.

Q. Speaking of the curriculum—

A. The curriculum must be discussed in term of *experience*. The purpose of our curriculum must be to produce *a well-integrated personality*.

Q. What must the curriculum have?

A. An *aim*. Its aim is to produce a *thoroughly socialized individual*, one who realizes his *obligation to society* and is able to *take his place in it*. It must manage a *functional combination of the experiences of actual life* and *those intellectual activities which will parallel future out-of-school experience*. No ivory-tower methodology will be tolerated.

Q. Good gracious! And how can all this be done?

A. It won't be *done*. It will be *accomplished*. Naturally, one must use the *scientific approach, provide controls, set up norms, institute measurements of growth*. *The Achievement Quotient* is as important as the *Intelligence Quotient*. About to be added is the *Adjustment Quotient*, but one must *think through* the problem.

Q. A—Mr. Arbuthnot, have you a child?

A. I have a *gifted* child.

Q. What other kinds are there?

A. The society of cliche experts, of which I am a charter member, recognizes but three other kinds: the *maladjusted* child, the *underprivileged* child, and the *non-academically minded* child.

Q. Thank you for a concise statement on the child situation, Mr. Arbuthnot. By the way, what sort of school does your child attend?

A. A *child-centered* school.

Q. And this school uses what kind of approach?

A. The *psychological* approach.

Q. And what does this approach give?

A. It doesn't *give*; it *provides*. And it *provides enrichment*. It *exploits the child's field of interest*; it causes him to work to *the limit of his capacity*; it ensures him *opportunities for rich democratic living*; it explores his *vocational potentialities*; it presents *life experience*; it encourages *pupil activity* and *creatve expression*; it *develops his skills*.

Q. What does your child receive?

A. *Attention.*

Q. You've omitted something?

A. *Individual* attention. I thought that was understood.

Q. Nothing is understood, Mr. Arbuthnot. Surely, you should know that!

A. If you wish me to remain, Mr. Dewey, please remember that I, not you, am the purveyor of cliches.

Q. Forgive me, you are quite right. Now, what else does your child receive?

A. *Guidance. Emotional, educational, vocational—prognosis, diagnosis—the Gestalt Theory—behavior problems—individual differences—experimental background—the rejected child—introversial, extroversial*—I've just started. Shall I continue?

Q. No, indeed. One hundred per cent on guidance cliches. You mentioned a faculty conference. What was the subject?

A. *Germane.*

Q. And the discussion?

A. *Challenging* and *provocative of our best creative thought.*

Q. And what did the conference pass?

A. *A resolution.*

Q. What does the resolution need?

A. *Implementation.*

Q. Good. Now, what have you to say about your efforts?

A. We must *channelize* them.

Q. Can you give me the gist of the conference?

A. No, but I can inform you as to some of the more important matters considered.

Q. Pray, do so.

A. We attempted to determine the correct *educational climate*. We considered the importance of *leisure-time activity*. We *evalu-*

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ated our program in terms of *intercultural relations.* We viewed with alarm the present tendency—*core curriculum—correlation—implications for education of the atom bomb—peripheral thinking—multiple sense appeal—the whole child—The Harvard Report—incidental learning—the Bush Report—*

Q. Fine, fine. We may dispense with the conference cliches. There is just one thing more. In order to accomplish all this, what did you use?

A. Correct *frames of reference.* You can't stick me there, Mr. Dewey, though you'd like to, wouldn't you?

Q. Let me congratulate you, Mr. Arbuthnot. You have passed the examination with—

A. Flying colors?

Q. Yes, how did you know?

A. It was very simple. You know what I am, don't you?

Q. No, what?

A. A candidate for a higher license. Good day!

DOROTHY A. FRANK
High School of Science.

COOPERATIVE CUMULATION AND THE IMPROVEMENT OF ENGLISH TEACHING

Twenty-five years ago, sitting at the feet of his masters, this teacher was initiated into the same books he uses today—*Silas Marner, Treasure Island, A Tale of Two Cities, The Ancient Mariner, Julius Caesar, Sohrab and Rustum, Ivanhoe, As You Like It, Macbeth,* and others. Some addition of texts, some shifts of grade, some omissions have taken place, but the curriculum as determined by text has not altered too much. Let us say, for the sake of argument, that in New York City in the last quarter century 500 classes per term were exposed to Silas's protuberant eye. That would make 25,000 teachings of the book by approximately 10,000 different teachers. Surely among these craftsmen some were better than others and their art was not so evanescent that some part of their skill was not transitive. With such a rich pedagogical ancestry one would expect that all permutations and combinations possible in the teaching of *Silas Marner* had been explored. If these riches were made available to the English staff—as plan and lesson reports—the stimulus to creative teaching would be incalculable. Today each tyro

begins his career by repeating in his own original way the original fumblings of the race of pedagogues until by chance, by natural selection, or by self-preservation he stumbles on some pattern which gives him a modicum of success. How well we can profit, who are less gifted and less experienced, from a perusal of the lesson plans and lessons of the experts! Somewhere in the system there are pearls! And is a pearl less a pearl for having been shared?

THE MANUAL. A teacher's manual available to those interested, built around each basic text and basic activity, revealing cumulatively and continuously the best efforts of the staff in very specific areas of teaching, holds great promise for self-improvement. No infringement is here intended on the fundamental right to plan one's own course; no obligation even to use is here implied. What the manual provides is an opportunity, first, to see what the fellow next door is doing without disturbing his privacy; and second, to save the "pearls" from being ground to sand in the tides of time. No doubt, such a manual will be a challenge; no doubt, it will carry definite incentives for many teachers; but whatever force it holds will be entirely persuasive and optional. Teaching is both a science and an art; by pooling our science, we may improve our art.

Even if stress on texts were to shift and the character and organization of subject-matter were to change, keeping teachers apprised of outstanding performance would still have inestimable value. Yes, one may find in scattered texts and publications useful ideas and procedures; but these rarely piece together to make one practical lesson plan, let alone a barrage of successful lessons. If each English department in our fifty or so high schools were to contribute ten "show" lessons per year, how soon would the accumulation become encyclopedic! Could we resist the temptation to emulate when the research, the plan and an example of effective realization are brought home to us on a silver platter? All this, too, without subjecting the *honors* teacher to an inhibitive public gaze!*

* Credit should be given the New York City Association of Teachers of English for effort in this direction with a book like *Modern Techniques for Improving Secondary School English* (Noble and Noble, 1940) in which some 150 members of our system are contributors. What I contemplate, however, would be more lesson plans, more outlines, more details so that the functional possibilities could be quickly assimilated.

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PRACTICUM. The two traditional mainsprings of teacher improvement from the supervisor's viewpoint are intervisitation and demonstration. With recent teacher shortages, an always-present and understandable diffidence at being "intervisited," absence of a demonstration school and a demonstration program, the mainsprings haven't been ticking so well. This person remembers with pleasure a then-newly-instituted English practicum, the purpose of which was to train supervisors, but the not-inconsiderable effect of which was to improve one's teaching by permitting on-the-job learning. Such courses of combined teaching and analysis by teachers under the direction of several chairmen should be explored for their value in a program of teacher improvement. In one's own department there are always sensitivities of prestige which negate the value of mutual criticism. Amongst stranger and unknown chairmen-critics, with initial trepidations once overcome, the personal equation becomes negligible. Pooling first-assistant talent and consequent cross-pollination of ideas suggest the practicum as a second example of the principle of cooperative cumulation.

SPECIFICITY. Few books, articles, or courses explore fully the significance of the generalities behind which their authors take umbrage. A few debonair digitations by the professor, and the teacher is left to strangle putting a theory into practice. Theorists in education are a dime a dozen. No philosophy, no theory, no curricular experimentation takes on meaning until it is treated in terms that the teacher can understand—the daily classroom situation. Why not limit the field in high school in-service courses to such areas as First-Year Composition, Elementary Reading Technics, Teaching of *Silas Marner,* Vocabulary-Building? Stress on detailing ideas, intensity of exploration, should yield the teacher invaluable specifics from a variety of sources. The gap between theory and theory is not half so fatal as the gap between theory and practice.

MASS PRODUCTION OF APPROVED MATERIALS. Once some measure of unanimity is reached on what is good and necessary in the way of materials for instruction, shouldn't the principle of mass availability be applied to these items? Of course, the teaching problem differs from school to school, but it does not differ to the extent of nullifying this need for abundant well-thought-out exercises, question lists, outlines, illustrations and recordings. Today

the pedagogic squirrel buries his pedagogical nuts in the closet lest his neighbor winter on his hoard. Abandoning to a degree individual enterprise in favor of cooperative cumulation should enrich the pedagogue far beyond his private loss in any surrender of prized materials.

BINDER COURSE IN VISUAL INSTRUCTION. Every entrant freshman is required to take English, science, civics and health education. Each of these subjects lends itself to the use of visual instruction about which so much enthusiasm is being currently expressed. In addition, the home-room teacher is asked to provide guidance, while character education is a concern of all teachers. If a period of visual education were added to the freshman program, all these phases of the instructional program could be vastly enriched. Each department would be entitled to a day in the week in which its interests could be served. Nothing would forbid the English or civics teacher, however, from utilizing the film devoted to guidance, nor the science teacher from availing himself of the film that the health education people were sponsoring.

No complicating of the schedule need result from this venture because all freshmen would be programmed for visual education in the auditorium at the same time. The same teachers who cover study hall would switch their efforts from the abstractions of inculcating effective study habits to the concrete utilization of movies. Indeed, each interested department could send its representative on the scheduled day to stress its desired values.

Furthermore, there is a by-no-means inconsiderable advantage for program and schedule makers to establish this period in morning hours when the teaching load is heavy and lunch periods have not yet begun to suction off surplus students. Placing 300 freshmen in the auditorium releases eight classrooms for instructional purposes and makes it unnecessary to program upper-termers for study hall, who, no doubt, already have developed adequate study habits.

The only reluctance that might arise would be based on the question of crediting such a course for a diploma. Visualizing a hapless student in the senior year being denied his diploma on the basis of a single subject that he might have taken if he had not had visual instruction in the first term is not so far-fetched that it will not be raised as a reason for not providing this binder course. The agency that can effect cooperative cumulation in the field of visual instruc-

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tion is already in existence. It will have to think in terms of thirty-minute units. It will have to assist instructors in schools not equipped with talkies by offering descriptive folders and annotations. It will have to meet the problem of efficient distribution. If the idea of a freshman binder course is successful, some similar scheme can be used to make instruction vivid for cross-sections of the upper-termers.

DEFINITION. Cooperative cumulation is the principle of bringing to the *teaching act* by the way of the lesson plan, teaching technics and materials, the best thinking of the best minds in the system. Emphasis falls on additive experiences, multiple viewpoints, on-the-job analyses, intensive exploration of limited areas, specificity and adequate sharing. The principle calls for no radical revisions or extraordinary expenditures. The supervisory talent is there. What is needed is a board of strategy and a printing press. The principle has other implications, not only in English but in other subjects as well. The idea of *universalizing the best* can very easily be carried into the field of administration as regards testing, group guidance, practical democracy, and so on. In this paper, however, the scope has been limited to a few aspects of one subject so that the dominant principle might not be submerged.

FRANK BARMACK Straubenmuller Textile High School

AN EXPERIMENT IN THE WRITING OF FRENCH COMPOSITION

Both the writing and the correction of themes in any language have always been a bugaboo for the average student (with no special literary gift) and for the conscientious teacher, respectively.

In a foreign language, original composition presents added problems. Not only must the writer give attention to the thought content and the arrangement of ideas, but even more to the manner of expressing them, since his tools are still very limited and synthetic, even after three or four years of high school language study.

Bearing the latter in mind, we embarked on a new way of correcting themes in a third-year French class. For those teachers who can read some of the hair-raising, raggy gibberish submitted by students without suffering a stroke or an appreciable change in their blood pressure, the following is a waste. Only the others, who

writhe and agonize over the innumerable marginal notes and suggestions, may be interested; so much depends on the aims of the teaching and the background of the groups involved.

To begin with, to eliminate outside help, the theme was written in class. The topic and suggested sub-topics had been announced in advance, thus:

Topic—Le Président Roosevelt

Sub-topics—Où et comment vous avez appris la nouvelle de sa mort.

Votre première réaction

Vos sentiments et pensées secondaires

Le trait de son caractère que vous admirez le plus

Ce que nous devrions faire pour honorer sa mémoire.

The groups had been told to be prepared to write in class the next day. Thus, their assignment was to arrange their ideas orally and to resort to using the dictionary in acquiring or checking the words involved in expressing them.

During the writing in class the next day, further use of the dictionary was allowed, several having been placed at the disposal of the class. This was to encourage dictionary use, as well as to promote accuracy. Every other line was left blank to make for greater visual clarity and to leave room for corrections.

After the first correction, no rating was indicated. By a series of code marks—e.g., those listed below—the corrigible errors were *merely indicated* but *not corrected for the student*. As soon as possible after the first writing, we set aside a day for returning the themes with such indications as:

R - too much repetition
? - idea not clear
——— - mistake in spelling
— - accent wrong or missing
( ) - omit
t - literal translation from English instead of using French idiom

In some cases it was necessary for the teacher to rephrase or supply a word where students could not be expected to do so. However, before returning papers for *self* correction, I put on the board a list of the most common errors, gleaned during correction. These were explained and discussed. The code above mentioned appeared on an adjacent board. Having been told that their rating would depend on their self correction, as well as on the original composition, the students were then ready to make *their own* corrections *in pencil*.

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A second perusal of the self-corrected themes yielded a few remaining uncorrected errors and some additional ones, but above all a gratifying feeling that something very concrete had been accomplished. Some thirty to forty typical weaknesses in writing had been fortified, as evidenced by the students' correct application of the explanations given. Also, the pedagogic principle of leading the student to his own correction had been observed. True, the work and time involved were doubled, but the result seemed to warrant the cost in both. In fact, it seems preferable to cover three themes during a semester in this way, rather than to correct six in the time-honored method, leaving the student no further enlightened. Invariably, the student's attention is absorbed by his rating, leaving the tailor-made corrections as an interesting color scheme in red or blue, to be admired as such or ignored.

All of this would seem to stress only the means of expression and not the content. If a choice of topics is offered, relevant to a burning issue of the day (the one given here was offered immediately after the death of the president), or essentially pertinent to youth, the content will be found to be meaningful, instead of synthetic and forced, a conglomeration of acquired idioms, dragged in to impress, whether they advance the main thought or not.

For those interested, the following is a list of some of the most common traps, into which students repeatedly fell, and against which they had to be admonished. But is not that also a good old pedagogic rule?

Common Pitfalls

1. Differentiation in the use of tenses—excellent opportunity for fixing the use of the imperfect for description and the perfect for narrative
2. Mixing tenses—starting in the present and continuing in the past
3. Nuances between words and expressions; e.g., *peuple, personnes, gens, monde, on*
   battre and se battré
   avoir raison and être correct
   tout le monde and *le monde entier*
   quelques and *un peu*
   c'est and *il est*, according to what follows
4. Choice of one of several words apparently meaning the same thing; e.g., *so*, meaning *thus—donc*, not *si;*
   for, meaning *because—car*, not *pour;*
   everything—tout, not *toutes les choses*

5. Prepositional idioms:
   to learn of—apprendre, without *de*
   to hear of—entendre parler de
   loved by—aimé de, not *par*
   to listen to—écouter, without *à*
6. Other idiomatic usages and miscellaneous mistakes
   jusqu'à ce que—until, introducing a *clause*
   quoique, followed by subjunctive
   tout ce que (qui)—all that
   contraction of *de* & *le*—this difficulty continues right through the fourth year
   to, meaning *in order to*, is not included in the French infinitive but must be expressed by *pour*, except after such verbs as *venir* and *aller*
   the use of *devoir* plus infinitive to express *should*, meaning *ought*, instead of the conditional of a verb
   ordinal numbers like *21st, 31st* written out
   no capital *J* for *je* in the middle of a sentence
   inversion of a verb after a direct quotation
   verbs conjugated with *être* need constant review, not as a rule, but in sentences culled from compositions such as, *je suis allé, ma mère est revenue, il est mort*
   irregular past participles such as *mort, surpris, acquis, né*
   genders of nouns

le monde	*la paix*
le pays	*la vie*
Le jour	*la mort*
le journal	*la radio*
la terre	*la T.S.F.*
la nouvelle	

These were some of the main points under discussion before the second correction in class. From their scope it can be seen what a range of grammatical niceties was covered, only this time as aids in composition instead of in isolated sentences built around these points.

Rose Kurz-Bodin
Walton High School

ARE CHILDREN CITIZENS, TOO?

The wild welcome accorded Frank Sinatra, Harry James, Bing Crosby and other teen-age idols whenever they played the local theatres was of such moment as to warrant feature writers' devoting columns of space to this phenomenon. Questioned about this influence one sixteen-year old told me, "Why not? Frank Sinatra and Harry James are big-timers devoting their programs and attention to us. We don't always get this at school." Present tensions have tended

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to accelerate the maturation of boys and girls making them more ready than ever to participate in the problems of the nation and the world. Youth wants to be needed, is anxious to meet the world's challenges and would like to contribute to its ultimate shaping. And yet the thinking adolescent has little opportunity afforded him to get the satisfaction of being needed or of being a part of our social order. At all levels and in all grades of schooling much is made of the need for practical democracy, yet one high school states that *"there is not much of an obligation for students to be socially informed because most decisions on broad social policies are made by the administration. The administration decision is final. The G.O. officers are figureheads and merely go through routines. The G.O. Council becomes an errand-running service for the administration."*

STUDENT GOVERNMENT. Contrast this oft-heard statement with the following taken from a class project written by the senior students of the University High School of Ohio State University. *"In our school a visitor finds student government in classes, in student organizations and in our publications. This type of self-government is, in some cases, intangible, but it becomes evident when, for instance, an instructor is called out of the class. If one person is speaking he continues or, if the whole class is discussing a problem, we keep on discussing it until the return of the teacher. If an instructor were to come to us and say that the faculty had decided to tell us from then on what we were to do, he would encounter a great deal of opposition. We have faculty advisors for our organizations, but they do not have the last word in decisions."*

LEARN BY LIVING. Just as adults master citizenship by meeting its demands, so children have to learn their citizenship by living their citizenship. To deny them this privilege because the occasion for employing it is some years off is tantamount to denying to soldiers war training in peacetime because war is some years off. The tree bends as the twig is trained. Youth in its environment and in its living has myriad situations in which to practise the fundamentals of a citizenship program paralleling adult opportunities. Citizenship is no simple matter for grown-ups and at times it is most complex and most difficult. The good citizen besides displaying a readiness to accept the duties that go with the rights must, if he is to function as an effective citizen, develop such virtues as knowledge, insight,

sensitivity, ideals, attitudes and habits. Can any sane-thinking person oppose the inculcation of such traits in our young because voting is some years off? Can anyone claim these as the particular perogatives of the adult? Won't voting and other obligations of citizenship be more effectively performed if these conditioning factors became part of one's training in one's youth? Failure at effective citizenship-performance in the case of an adult can be traced to lack of proper training in earlier years when it's much easier to learn not to follow the path that brings failure, but to follow the one that brings success. Toward this end we must have pupil enterprise and pupil responsibility. Functional living imparts to the pupil a full sense of his obligations and develops an attitude looking towards its success. Desirable traits are thus developed and tend to become a part of the activity itself. Thus, these traits learned in the routine of democratic school living will more readily be applied when called for in later life. Pupils must learn how to meet a problem; how to analyze it; how to find and use sources; how to weigh evidence; how to judge their thinking and how to develop judgment. Adult citizenship practice sets objectives for itself differing little from these.

Pupils may be bombarded by emotional and inspirational concepts about our country, but unless we move on from these to concrete situations the effort will be abortive. We must get our young citizens to live their civics in every moment of their school life, and out of school as well. Just as the successful athlete trains faithfully, so must we give careful thought to training for the development of citizenship ideas.

DISCIPLINE AND AUTHORITY. Repressive discipline is accepted by adolescents so long as authority is present. But removing the authority leaves the young person incapable of acting for himself or of forming sound judgments. If he is of the aggressive type, he may seek revenge, or if he is weak, he will follow blindly the strongest in his group. Obedience, docility and conformity-concomitants of repression breed a poor band of citizens, old or young. The active virtues of citizenship—self reliance, initiative and originality—can stem only from giving to the adolescent the chance to participate in community activities. The principles of democracy call for democratic procedures in all fields of school life; namely, school administration, student government, teacher and student relations, school and community interrelations, etc. Education, with its

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necessary disciplines and with older people in charge of younger students, has a natural tendency to forget that *"Children are Citizens, Too."* It is easy enough to give lip service to an ideal. It is, however, quite another matter to put this ideal into practice. The young must be given every opportunity to justify their faith in the democratic way of life. They are to be made conscious of democracy's chief claim to strength—its ability to inquire, to discuss and to change. Students, as citizens, must have opportunity to pattern their lives, in school and out, along these lines. Teachers must make their contributions for training our future citizens by every possible practical application. They should emphasize the tenet, that freedom and equal opportunity are the rights of all free citizens. Children should be taught to see themselves as rational, intelligent though immature, individuals. Teachers should set the standards by sympathetic understanding and moral leadership, not by exercising a natural tendency toward authoritarianism. They should afford students every opportunity for voluntary, self-initiated acceptance of responsibilities. The classroom should not be characterized by prejudice and fear. The child must experience the ways of democracy. The school should provide an environment suitable for democratic learning; the relationship of pupil and teacher should be one of democratic cooperative effort. We cannot make citizens without seeing to it that the principles of citizenship are effectively practiced at all levels because *"Children are Citizens, Too."* Their capabilities have been too long underestimated.

LOUIS G. MESSING Evander Childs High School

RADIO SCRIPTS FOR UNITY

Radio drama has found a place in education. It offers opportunities for acting out scenes slanted toward current problems as well as providing thrillers. Because dramatic interest is maintained in flashes at high tension, the message comes through effectively.

In recent years a library of radio plays with a social purpose has dealt with the theme of combatting prejudice, discrimination, and antagonisms; refuting slanders against minority peoples; and showing up the threat to our democracy.

It is now a recognized part of our teaching technique to meet the onset of these dangers which may destroy our constitutional liberties.

In this fight the new-type radio play can be a potent weapon if used in the classroom, the assembly hall, and the clubroom.

The list appended below has been revised for post-war uses and will prove valuable in furthering any program devoted to intercultural understanding; in short, in helping to create that one world which Wendell Willkie envisioned.

The plays are grouped according to series. The notations are self-explanatory.

Radio Scripts

Issued by Federal Security Agency
U. S. Office of Education
Washington 25, D. C.

Americans All—Immigrants All by Gilbert Seldes

23 scripts. Each script is available in an individual folder. "A series of dramatizations presenting the story of the contributions of various cultural groups to the social, economic, and political development of the United States." Recommend S3-S6-S13-S17. Especially suitable are:

The Negro in the United States

Shows that the Negro, like other ethnic groups, has been with us from the beginning. Also shows the large part he has played in our artistic life.

Jews in the United States

Stirring episodes tell how Jews helped George Washington win in the struggle for freedom, their heroic participation in the War between the States and the first World War, and their contribution in the fields of science and the arts.

I'm An American

Twelve interviews with prominent naturalized citizens.

Let Freedom Ring by Harold G. and Dorothy Calhoun

A series of 13 scripts which dramatize the struggle to win and safeguard the civil liberties expressed in the Bill of Rights. (Bound in one volume or obtainable in individual folders.)

Set My People Free by Meredith Page

Traces the career of Booker T. Washington from childhood to final leadership as president of Tuskegee Institute. "His aim was to set our people free from the bondage of poverty and ignorance."

(A production of the Radio Workshop of the Ohio State University)

Issued by Writers Board
147 W. 42nd Street
New York, New York

(Royalty-free; for high-school age)

Battle of the Warsaw Ghetto by Morton Wishengrad 15 min.

Characters—5 men, 2 women, narrator

A grim but inspiring story of the rebellion of the Jews in the Warsaw

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ghetto and their final massacre by the Germans. Broadcast originally over N.B.C.

The Boy from Nebraska by Millard Lampell
10 men — 15 min.
The return of Ben Kuroki, Japanese-American tail-gunner hero, to meet prejudice which makes him feel that he has a place only in his country's fighting lines, not at home.

Dr. Hopkins' Atomic Bomb by Arnold Hartley
4 or 5 men and narrator — 20 min.
A timely documentary of the dangers to democracy inherent in prejudice in our education system against any minority group. Originally heard on W.O.V. New York City.

Foreigners Settled America by Gretta Baker
4 men, 2 women — 15 min
Story of a high school boy and girl, the boy a first generation American of Italian descent, the girl of Mayflower descent who learns that all Americans were at one time or other "foreigners."

In the Service of My Country by Langston Hughes — 12 min.
11 men, 1 child, Negro chorus
The story of the building of the Alcan Highway in Alaska, where men of all races worked shoulder to shoulder through shared perils and hardships. A symbolic script for post-war use.

Is Fair Play Controversial? by Chet Huntley — 15 min.
4 men
A simple script set in a war plant which shows that, when given equal opportunities, Negroes learn as rapidly as white people.

Scapegoats in History by Ben Kagan — 25 min.
5 men, 1 woman
Dramatizes the tricks of demagogues from the days of Jesus and Herod to the 20th century. Based on a pamphlet of the same name by Kenneth Gould, and a book, *History of Bigotry in the U. S.* by Gustavus Myers. Originally heard on N.B.C.

The Candle and the Gun by Mari Yanofsky — 15 min.
3 men, 1 woman, 1 boy, narrator
An eloquent plea for racial tolerance in the story of a young Jewish soldier on a troop-ship and his observance of the rituals of his religion. Broadcast originally over C.B.S.

There Are Things to Be Done by Mitchell Grayson — 25 min.
4 men, 1 woman
Everyday incidents show what each individual can do in a concrete way to further the fair treatment of the Negro. Based on Lillian Smith's pamphlet of the same name. Originally broadcast over W.M.C.A.

These Are Americans by Chet Huntley and Ernest Martin — 10 min.
9 men and announcer
A factual story of the contribution of Mexican-American citizens to the United States in the fields of agriculture, industry, and in the armed

forces. Broadcast originally over CBS in co-operation with the Southern California Council of Inter-American Affairs.

They Burned the Books by Stephen Vincent Benét — 15 min.
narrator, 3 men, 1 woman, 1 boy
(English, French, and German accents needed)
An excellent poetic dramatization of the destruction of liberty and truth in Germany on May 10, 1933, the day of the burning of the books. Originally broadcast over NBC for the Council on Books in Wartime.

To Liberty in a Featherbed by Morton Wishengrad — 15 min.
narrator, 6 men
A simple yet forceful re-statement of Thomas Kennedy's fight in the Maryland House of Delegates to take religion out of politics.

NEW WORLD A-COMING SERIES

Issued by

W.M.C.A. Radio Station
1657 Broadway, New York 19, New York
Issued by New World A-Coming Series

Purpose: to dramatize the contributions of minority groups to the strengthening of democracy.

New World A-Coming by Michael Sklar — 27 min.
The first installment of *Freedom Road* by Howard Fast shows Gideon Jackson preparing to assume leadership of the southern Negroes up to the time 1868, when four million black men were tasting the first sweet fruits of freedom and democracy.
WMCA broadcast, January 14, 1945

New World A-Coming by Michael Sklar — 27 min.
The second installment of *Freedom Road*, period of February 1877. Cotton planters organize to destroy the beginnings of democracy in the South by killing off the independent farmer. Shows the final stage in the fight of the Ku Klux Klan against the resisting Negroes under Jackson.
WMCA, January 21, 1945

One World, a radio adaptation of *One World* by Wendell Willkie — 27 min.
Misconceptions about other countries and other peoples are refuted simply, with emphasis on Jerusalem, Russia, and the two factions in China.
WMCA, October 8, 1945

Prejudice by Charles Gussman — 27 min.
A humorous attack on the habit of thinking in clichés as the cause of much prejudice. Hits the devices of false generalization and divide-and-conquer as responsible for the spread of hate. Includes skit, *Old Man Author*, which ridicules the stereotypes of Jew, Irish, Italian, and Negro.
WMCA, January 5, 1945

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River . . . Valley . . . and People by Michael Sklar 27 min.
A tale of what ten years have done to the residents of the Tennessee Valley. Black and white folks have learned to live together, and prosperity has eased racial tensions. At the valley people move toward a better future, a glimpse can be had of the new world a-coming.
WMCA, December 18, 1945

Roots of Hate by Sol Panitz 27 min.
A dip into the future shows a world destroyed by HATE. As bits of scenes with Ghengiz Khan and Florentines unroll, the usual lies against other peoples and minorities are spread by word of mouth. Minorities are ruthlessly liquidated without trial and hate spreads to ALL groups regardless of name or nationality or color.
WMCA (no date)

The Cadet by Joseph Gottlieb 27 min.
A radio adaptation of *All Brave Sailors.*
A Negro marine is admitted to the U. S. Merchant Marine Academy but meets opposition. His buddies stick to him despite protest and ostracism. All the trite objections to Negroes are trotted out but answered squarely.
WMCA, November 20, 1945

Vermont Experiment by Michael Sklar 27 min.
A minister interested in the Negro problem decides to do something about the disease of racial intolerance. 50 farmers and townspeople agree to entertain a like number of Negro children from New York City during a two-week vacation in summer. The experiment proves that Christianity can work. The experiment spreads to other cities.
WMCA, October 15, 1945

Miscellaneous

Behold the Jew dramatized by Milton Geiger from the book by Ada Jackson
Against a Biblical background incidents depict the sacrifice and achievements of the Jews who are about to celebrate the traditional services of Rosh Hoshanah, the Jewish New Year, year 5706.
Broadcast over WEAF, September 4, 1945

I Call 'em Buddies 15 min.
A story of prejudice and how it almost resulted in a strike until a wounded soldier came along.
National Conference of Christians and Jews
381 Fourth Avenue
New York 16, New York

Open Letter on Race Hatred by William N. Robson 15 min.
A radio document on the damage race hatred has done to our prestige, our war effort, and our self-respect.
Theatre Arts, September 1944

FELIX SPER Thomas Jefferson High School

NOTES ON THE DEPARTMENTAL FILM PROGRAM

A nationwide survey reported in the New York *Times* of October 21, 1945, demonstrated that one of the major influences of the Army Training Program on colleges and schools would be the greatly increased use of visual-training aids. It is, therefore, incumbent upon the conscientious teacher to make the best possible use of the wonderful tools which are at his command.

FILMS FROM OUTSIDE SOURCES. Films, like other teaching aids, lose much of their value in vitalizing and enriching the classroom experience if they are not used at the proper time. Careful long-range planning is, therefore, needed in order to insure the availability of a desirable film at that point in the teaching unit where it can contribute most. Two questions, therefore, must be considered:

1. How can we make sure that the desired film will be available when needed?
2. Is the film in question the best available for our purpose?

To meet the first problem we might adopt a plan in use by many alert teachers of biology to have living material needed for demonstration on hand when required. The chairman of each subject grade or some other interested teacher will have to lay out a day-by-day term schedule for that subject grade. He will then have to decide at what points on this schedule selected films would be of greatest benefit to the students. Assuming that the teachers of the grade of work adhere to this schedule within a reasonable limit and that the schedule is constructed long enough in advance, then the rest is a fairly simple matter. The dates on which the films are to be shown should be cleared and filed with the director of visual aids of the school to see that projection facilities will be available. The films can then be reserved in advance with the film source. A term film schedule set up in this way will provide films at the desired spot in the teaching sequence.

A CATALOGUE. The second problem will require a little more work on the part of department members. Films are becoming available in ever increasing numbers from widely different sources. Many teachers are unaware of excellent moving pictures in many subjects in which little of anything was available heretofore. In order to acquaint teachers with these valuable teaching aids it would be advisable to set up a film steering-committee for the department.

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It would not be necessary or even possible for this committee to view every film in the subject area. The committee might make it a point, however, to see films which other educators in the subject have recommended, to determine their applicability to the needs and interests of their own students. The committee should establish for itself a check-list of some of the more desirable attributes of a good teaching film and decide for itself how well the film studied lives up to these criteria. A functional, extremely useful catalogue should result from the committee's work. This might take the form of a card file arranged according to teaching units in each grade of work.

Cards might be set up as follows:

Dewey decimal classification — Useful for: Teaching Unit Topic:

Title:

Running time: silent or sound.

Source—rental fee

Description of contents

Comments of committee.

For example a biology teacher interested in showing a film to summarize the process of sexual reproduction would find it by looking in the section of the file dealing with the unit on reproduction.

639 — Sexual Reproduction (Fish)

PACIFIC COAST SALMON

15 min.; 16 mm. Silent

Department library—

Description: Shows salmon run; salmon jumping over falls; salmon in natural spawning grounds; clearly presents artificial spawning: stripping eggs from female; squeezing sperm from male; pictures salmon fry. Canning the salmon catch.

Comments of Committee: The first five minutes well adapted to presentation or review of the life history of the fish. The last ten minutes which deal with canning salmon might well be omitted in classes studying reproduction.

This card file should be kept up to date by regular committee screenings of new films, reported in such publications as *Educational Film Guide*. If information such as that described above is made readily available to teachers, the average alert teacher will make ever increasing use of the enriching experience provided by selected motion pictures.

DEPARTMENT LIBRARY FILMS. To be financially successful a film must appeal to as wide an age range and subject area as possible. It is for this very reason that commercially made films often fail to meet the needs of the students studying a particular grade of a subject in a school in a particular locality. Good teachers have long recognized this fact and in many instances have, therefore, limited their use of films to the preview lesson or the review lesson where the generalized approach is desirable. The fact that films as commercially available usually come in reel lengths, (400′ or multiples) has further contributed to this situation. There is no doubt, however, that short film clips dealing with one specific theme can be used to excellent advantage in development lessons. Unfortunately, however, as pointed out above, these are now obtainable from commercial sources only in rare instances. The fact that some short films (such as Eastman Kodaks Company's *Fertilization*) have been made available in recent years is a step in the right direction. It is up to educators to make their needs felt and have more and more of these short length movies produced.

Two other courses lie open:

1. Production of classroom films by the teacher to meet a felt need.
2. Editing of the commercially available product.

ADAPTATION. The first solution, although the ideal one, in most cases is not practicable. A great deal can, however, be done with the films already present in the department film library to make them more useful and adaptable to the teaching process. It might be advisable for each department to delegate to a movie "fan" within the department or school the task of editing, with the help of the film steering committee, the films owned by the department. In this way 400 foot reels might be broken down into shorter clips, and used either individually or combined with clips from other reels to meet the particular needs of the department. For example, in the film

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Pacific Coast Salmon mentioned above the five-minute sequence on life history is the part that a class studying reproduction would benefit from most. This sequence could be cut from the film, and used as a short clip which could easily be well integrated into a developmental lesson. Many other possibilities along this line will suggest themselves to the committee.

It is only through a constant reevaluation of the goals and procedures in the classroom use of the motion picture, on the part of both teachers and producers, can we hope to make the most of this marvelous device for enriching and vitalizing classroom experiences.

ROBERT R. ROBINSON
Midwood High School

THE SECOND AUDIO-VISUAL AIDS INSTITUTE

In response to many requests urging that the Audio-Visual Aids Institute be made an annual event, the Department of Education of The American Museum of Natural History held its second Institute at the Museum on January 11th and 12th. The theme for this year was *Methods and Techniques for the Utilization of Audio-Visual Materials in the Classroom.* One panel only was in session at any one time at which materials and techniques applicable to all levels were discussed. This gave every teacher attending the Institute an opportunity to see and hear how those actually using audio-visual materials in the classroom make these teaching aids effective in enriching the curriculum.

FILMS. The first session, held on Friday afternoon, was a preview of new classroom films, *Dinner Party* (Simmel-Meservy), *Portage* (Canadian Film Bureau), and *Safety in the Home* (Young America Films). In the evening the session was in the form of a preview of a new feature film, *The Spiral Staircase,* soon to be released by RKO-Radio Pictures. This psychological mystery was particularly interesting to those present because of the skillful lighting and photography utilized in the film.

Three features marked the Saturday program—the opening of the Museum's new Audio-Visual Aids Information Center, special panel programs morning and afternoon, and the announcement of an "Oscar" or special award to be given by the Museum for the best motion picture made by pupils during 1946.

AUDIO-VISUAL AIDS CENTER. For over a half-century teachers have come to the American Museum of Natural History for information regarding materials of various types available for classroom use. With the increased use of audio-visual aids, the Museum decided to establish a Center where catalogs, pamphlets, bulletins, and samples of many types of these aids could be assembled and the teacher, student, and research worker could thus know who produces the materials and where to secure them.

This Audio-Visual Aids Information Center is located in a large room on the second floor of the Education Wing of the Museum. In the file cabinets are catalogs from many companies; charts, maps, flat prints and posters are arranged on large display racks; and work tables are placed so that teachers and research students may examine materials and plan their work. At one end of the Center is a projection room where films, lantern slides and filmstrips may be projected, and lessons taken in the manipulation of various types of projection apparatus. The Center is not only a practical workshop and information source but also provides a most convenient place for meetings of special groups interested in new developments in the audio-visual field. The services of this Center are nation-wide, in keeping with the policy of the Museum in circulating its films and lantern slides throughout the country. Inquiries addressed either to Dr. Irene F. Cypher or Dr. Grace F. Ramsey, supervisors of the Center, will receive immediate attention.

The panel program of the Institute on Saturday morning was devoted to a presentation of effective techniques in utilizing audio-visual materials. Six teachers and twenty-one students gave a graphic picture of the use of films, slides, and recording machines in classrooms, the training of students in the production, selection and use of audio-visual aids, and critical student evaluations of the Institute program and the methods of using visual aids in classrooms.

OUR OWN "OSCAR." At the conclusion of the morning program the following announcement was made: *"To you who are movie-makers—the film that has just been shown has many evident weaknesses, but it is challenging and it has a purpose. The American Museum of Natural History is going to let the film makers of the schools represented in this assembly—and others—compete for a special Oscar designed by the Museum and awarded by vote of the audience at the 1947 Audio-Visual Aids Institute.*

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"The competition will be open to all schools. Your film must be 100 feet long or less. It must be planned and produced by pupils.

To enter the competition a film must be sent to Dr. Grace F. Ramsey at the Museum by December 15, 1946, and a selection of five will be made for the showing at the Institute next January, 1947. Then it will be the privilege of the audience to make the choice of the winning film. An Oscar designed and made by artists at the Museum will be presented to the winner."

Television and atomic energy were the problems considered at the afternoon session under the chairmanship of Dr. Charles Russell, Chairman of the Department of Education of the Museum. Col. Warren Wade, in charge of production for the Television Division of the N.B.C., presented a convincing case for educational possibilities of television: *"Schools,"* he said, *"will within the year, I venture to say, use television as a means of creating a series of visual classroom experiences, wherever television is available."*

Dr. Ralph P. Johnson, of the General Electric Company's Research Laboratories at Schenectady, N. Y., one of the scientists working on the government's atomic bomb project, completed the afternoon program by giving a most illuminating discussion of Atomic Power. After an exceptionally clear explanation of the chain reaction which may be set up when a nucleus of U-235 is split by a free neutron, Dr. Johnson discussed the two major lines of work in the bomb project and sized up the problems that must be solved before atomic power can be used for productive purposes.

The Institute was well attended by principals, supervisors, and teachers, from kindergarten through secondary schools throughout the metropolitan area, all interested in knowing what materials and equipment are available and methods of using them effectively. The third Institute is planned for January 10 and 11, 1947.

IRENE F. CYPHER and GRACE F. RAMSEY
The American Museum of Natural History

WE HAVE A PARTY

Christmas and Easter parties are in the best of school tradition. Some ten days before the recent holidays, a youngster in my class asked for permission to collect funds for the customary sweets. We

agreed to defer consideration of the matter until the home room period, when it would be brought up for a thorough discussion.

PLANNING. I came to class fully determined to break tradition. Ours was going to be a real party, not a glutton's holiday. The boys greeted the suggestion for a party enthusiastically, anticipating somewhat the spirit of the season. But, for tactical reasons, I threw a wet blanket on the whole plan, pointing out, that if they were eager for a party, they might take off in small groups to the local candy shops after school.

"No, that wasn't a real party," they insisted. Perturbed by my negative attitude and determined to defend their cause, they proceeded to describe a "real party." And before long every pupil in the class had volunteered for a committee—finance, decorations, entertainment, social, and refreshment.

The committees selected their chairmen, planned their work and submitted the results to the committee of the whole. The refreshment and decoration committees came into conflict on the allocation of funds, the former insisting on the lion's share. A motion, designed to resolve the controversy by increasing the contribution, was defeated at my request. Finally, a youngster provided a workable formula by which the refreshment committee would receive the funds requested, with the proviso that every boy in the class submit a drawing acceptable to the decoration committee. The art teacher provided the drawing paper and the inspiration.

The social committee set the rules for dress and decorum, and the entertainment committee submitted plans that included individual and class singing, a piece by the class violinist, a story, amateur contributions, dancing, and a skit dealing with a scene in the dean's office, with which my boys are thoroughly familiar.

On the way out that afternoon, the chairman of the social committee approached timidly to ask whether it would be possible to invite a girls' class. Not wishing to commit myself, I indicated that the problem was worthy of further consideration. Our school is in the heart of an interracial community, in which gang wars and juvenile delinquency have been rife. Schools in such communities frequently segregate the girls and boys, as does ours. Often, where pupils have not been exposed to co-education, the first experience is tense; the boys tease the girls; the girls feign indifference; the exhibitionists have a field day.

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The next morning there was a hubbub of excitement as the class entered the room. Knowing that I was open to persuasion, they were prepared to enter their pleas. They asked, pleaded, demanded, begged —the most reticent raised his voice; the class culprit offered sanctimonious vows of good conduct. But neither their vows nor their pleas were persuasive. What did persuade me was the manner in which they conducted themselves, the seriousness with which they took to the project, the sincerity with which they discharged their tasks.

RESULTS. I find that as a result of this unit, there was a greater growth in group spirit, in the desire to cooperate, in the exercise of initiative, in the willingness to accept responsibility, in the greater eagerness to discharge duties than in any other project conducted during the term. I suppose that this, more than any other venture, provided greater opportunity for such development. Moreover, it was a unit designated as "fun," in which they immersed themselves completely and enthusiastically.

Several other results are worth noting. First, as indicated above the youngsters decided to make the decorations. Some of the work was good; most of it was fair. But more important than the caliber of the work is the fact that they returned their drawings without so much as a frayed edge, indicating extreme caution in handling. To anyone familiar with the way our youngsters abuse texts, desks, report cards, school and public property, this simple fact assumes real significance. If only we could get our young people to respect their school as they prized those drawings!

Second result: as the bell rang, the girls' class appeared at my room door, but were too shy to enter. After much forebearance, their teacher offered them the alternatives of entering at once or of returning to their room. Some hardy soul led all the rest. They crowded into the far corner of the room, two in a seat, in a phalanx of incredible shyness. To solve this little problem by asking them to take individual seats was easy. In this manner they were interspersed among the boys. This relationship, if one can so dignify the complete lack of communication and responsiveness, reflected the best mid-Victorian propriety.

Even the refreshments and entertainment seemed to do little to break down the barrier. My colleagues and I feel that these students are ready for a real co-educational program.

Third result: the chairman of the finance committee was a boy of 66 I.Q., who had previously been in an adjustment class. He was the great surprise of the project. He took seriously the burdens of his responsibilities and performed admirably. He demanded a careful accounting of every cent, and eventually submitted a complete report detailing every last expenditure. If ever I had questioned his ability to hold down a job, to create his niche, to make his contribution, that week before the party dispelled my last doubt.

Fourth result: I believe that parties of whatever nature are important in our school. I'm fully persuaded that truant officers are scarcely as effective as a positive school program in which the pupils find happiness. Recently a chronic late comer attributed his lateness to the fact that he needed rest during the week because he awoke early on Saturday and Sunday. I couldn't help feeling that he awoke early to get the most out of the week-end and slept late because he couldn't face the horror of school. If only we can make learning as pleasant as a party!

WEAKNESS IN PROGRAM. First, there is no doubt that greater pains should have been taken to coordinate this program with the work of other teachers. The English teacher might have been approached to help with dramatics; the health education department, with dancing; the art department, with decoration; etc. In fact, if the entire school ran parties in this manner, the details of the unit might have been worked out at a faculty conference.

Second, a decision as to whether the girls were to be invited should have been reached earlier, so that they could have participated in preparing the program. Close cooperation on these problems might have enabled them to transcend the barrier of shyness.

RUBIN MALOFF
Junior High School 40

Books

Statistics of Public School Libraries, 1941-1942, by Nora E. Beust and Emery M. Foster. Ch. VIII of v. 2. of the Biennal Surveys of Education in the U. S. Supt. of Documents. Wash., D. C. c1945. price 15¢.

This small pamphlet contains the most recent statistics on library service in public elementary and secondary schools all over the U. S. It brings nearly up-to-date the previous study of school libraries made in 1934-1935.

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About 75 per cent of all school systems in the country (6,077) responded with data for this report.

Four thousand three hundred sixty-eight (4,368) school systems with an enrollment of 13,379,618 pupils reported a stock of 52,360,302 library books. Only 3,471 school systems reported income. They gave an average income for libraries all over the country at the rate of $1.35 per pupil.

The report also shows that the average school library all over the country reported 4.51 books per pupil, if it had a centralized library; 3.05 books per pupil if it had classroom collections only; and 3.01 books per pupil if it had loan collections only.

Considering the figures given in terms of educational levels, 63,417 elementary school with a gross enrollment of 7,787,376 pupils reported on type of library service:

Elementary Schools

Type of service	*Schools reporting*	*Percentage of pupils served*
Centralized libraries	16.3%	40.3%
Classroom collections only	68.0%	48.6%
Loan collections only	11.5%	7.8%
No library facilities	4.2%	3.3%

However, it must be remembered that 25% of the school systems did not reply. It is probable that conditions in this 25% would not be as favorable.

A total of 7,277 high schools reported, with a gross enrollment of 4,238,233 pupils:

High Schools

Type of service	*Schools reporting*	*Percentage of pupils served*
Centralized libraries	90.5%	97.0%
Classroom collections only	8.3%	2.4%
Loan collections only	0.8%	0.3%
No library facilities	0.4%	0.3%

The reporting elementary schools gave a ratio of 3.2 books per pupils, while the high schools reported 5.0 books per pupil.

The figures given for full-and part-time librarians employed in schools reporting such service (assuming that the children were divided equally) average up to

High Schools	*Elementary Schools*	*Combined High School and Elementary*
1 per 652 pupils	1 per 784 pupils	1 per 502 pupils

The purpose of this study was to secure data on all public school libraries in the U. S., and questionnaires were sent to all school superintendents, city and rural. While only about 75% replied, a comparison of this study with the figures of 1934-1935 does show rather well the growth of library

service throughout the U. S. Of the 75% replying, almost 92% have some form of library service in their schools.

The reports gives many charts, maps, and tables, defines types of library service, and gives information on the training of librarians in central libraries. It is interesting to note in connection with the last point that nearly 68% of the full-time librarians all over the country had 24 semester hours or more professional training. Data also are given on types of reference and reading service, administrative control of school libraries, income and expenditures, and size of libraries.

Altogether this seems to be a very informative report on the status of libraries in public schools in the U. S., although it is to be regretted that it brings the situation up only to 1941-1942.

HELEN S. CARPENTER

The Modern American Consumer; Learning to Use Advertising; Time on Your Hands; Investing in Yourself; Using Standards and Labels. Consumer Education Study, National Association of Secondary School Principals. 1201 16th St., N.W., Washington, D.C. 25¢ each.

After a decade of spindly growth, a Consumer Education, genus "Buyer Beware," knocked at the doors of the National Association of Secondary School Principals demanding a hearing. The dour character got in a point, *"If education is for living, tnen how about the consumer?"* and a three-year study of that point was voted. A substantial sum of money to support the project came from the National Better Business Bureau, a conservative business organization devoted to improving advertising practises. The NASSP chose Professor Thomas H. Briggs, of Teachers College, Director, and Dr. Fred T. Wilhelms, formerly Superintendent of Schools for various Nebraska communities and a member of the staff of the University of Nebraska, as Assistant Director. A large advisory group, composed of outstanding people from the ranks of education, labor, business, agriculture and consumer organizations, was gathered by Dr. Briggs to assist in building more firmly an overall picture.

The study set itself this question: *"What education does the young American need to become a more intelligent consumer under existing conditions?"*

Don't expect The Answer. Something physical and philosophical, however, has been achieved:

1. About 15 teaching-learning units for students have been or are being developed for use
   a. in a specific consumer-education course
   b. for integration with current courses in the social studies, home economics, business education or elsewhere, as you please. (The five listed, plus units soon to appear on money management, buying insurance, using consumer credit, buying health, effective shopping, a study

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of American production and distribution, the consumer and the law, and others.)

2. *A Buyer's Notebook Series,* to consist of informational leaflets on specific goods and services, is beginning to appear. The first sample was excellent.

3. A group of bibliographies on specific areas in consumer education are in the making.

4. A volume for teachers and administrators on the philosophy of consumer education, methods of introducing and developing it in the secondary school, teacher training, etc., will soon be available.

5. The frequently deadening tempo and organization of the textbook has been improved by the use of a lively style, by interrupting the text with challenging questions (instead of waiting for the end of a chapter), by clever cartoons, practical projects and activities. Flexible *units* which a teacher can shuffle to make a consumer education course, a part of any course, a phase of home room activity, a supplementary reading, deserve a hallelujah. Make your own textbook.

Over-all Contributions

1. Consumer education has been defined in terms of goals. *"The purpose of consumer education is to help people become more intelligent, more effective and more conscientious consumers."* What's missing is a full conception of "consumer," who most assuredly is not merely the buyer of peas and shirts, but a user (consumer) of all the world's physical and spiritual riches, some of which he never *buys* personally but yet possesses and uses. He *uses* time, education, science, the radio, history, a public botanical garden, democracy, and the atomic bomb. Shall consumer education, then, consist of a collection of buying skills only? This failure to clarify the *consumer* is the most serious weakness of the study.

2. In relation to our economy, a position for consumer education has been accepted. The units tend to give considerable credit to present business procedures and to be extremely conservative in criticism thereof. The implication is that the consumer will have to improve himself and business will have to improve itself. The consumer cannot change business. We ask, "What makes business more sacred than the President and Congress?" What is *consumer* education if it doesn't stimulate seeing things through the *consumer's* eyes? Shall we forever understand and appreciate the producer's problems without ever giving a real priority to the *consumer's* headaches even in *consumer* education? Aren't we *all* consumers whereas a business interest remains a *special* interest?

3. The difference between consumer education and the consumer movement has been clarified. The consumer movement is the product of disaffected consumers' seeking improvements in legislation, labeling, standards, advertising and selling practices. Consumer education seeks an understanding of the total problem. It does not take sides. We might ask, *"What's*

wrong about taking sides with 140,000,000 *Americans? Does taking sides necessarily mean economic revolution, direct opposition or anything wicked? Or can it merely mean a clarification of the issues on the side of the tracks where* all *of us live?"*

Now for the specific publications:

1. *The Modern American Consumer*—67 pages. The intelligent consumer not only must understand production and distribution; he must also develop standards and a sense of values, buying skills, skills in dealing with business men. He must learn to *use* his world of things and money. He must see himself and his needs in terms of social goals. . . . A good over-all picture for home economics, social studies, business education.

2. *Learning to Use Advertising*—107 pages. If there be arguments, gather here, for nothing is so moot among consumers as advertising. The unit leans backward to give a fair picture of current advertising, recognizing that a businessman *must* sell his goods and that the consumer all too often is pretty much of an ignoramus and a weakling. It presents three basic business philosophies from which to choose a point-of-view on advertising:

(1) Make freedom of enterprise and freedom of consumer choice the criterion.

(2) Make human welfare the criterion.

(3) Make a cooperative effort to solve the problem.

There is an excellent chapter on how to get the facts from advertising, and another on how advertising may be improved. You may not agree with every word, but, to date, this is the most useful publication for the classroom on the problem of advertising. It gives you plenty to discuss and get mad at. Social studies and business education shouldn't miss it.

3. *Time on Your Hands*—122 pages. We've never found a place in the secondary school curriculum for a phase of living that has become increasingly significant in civilized society. As we head for less slavery and greater freedom from oppressive toil, we create an enormous social and individual surplus of Time, but we are very poorly organized to use or distribute it and we fail to give any school guidance. *"Time on Your Hands"* tries to answer the questions: *What are the worthwhile kinds of recreation? What's worth your doing? How can you develop new leisure-time experiences? How should you plan your program? How can the community contribute?* A very fine bibliography concludes this stimulating unit for a class in English, or for the home room guidance period. It's practical, realistic, and in a style easy for the high school lad and lass to understand.

4. *Investing in Yourself*—90 pages. If consumer education means education in use, then surely we ought to learn to use *ourselves* wisely, and that is the burden of this tale. We've got to get a sense of our own worth, to improve and grow in that knowledge. *What have we to offer the world? What is our sense of values? How do we use our inherent riches? Why*

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should we invest in education? And how can we use education to the best advantage? What is the role of the job, personal experience, friends in personality growth? Again, here is no sermon no moralizing—just a practical approach to the problem of *using yourself wisely* in terms of your Self and Environment. In some form this unit is a "must" for all adolescents, but it is especially valuable in home-room guidance, English, home economics.

5. *Using Standards and Labels*—128 pages. If the order in which these units appeared disturbs you, think of the 300-piece puzzle which you work out from the corners to the middle. There is design in the finished job and you know it, but you have to grope anyway. There's, perhaps, considerable groping as a whole in the Consumer Education Study, but you're conscious of approaching form. In this unit the study has undertaken the job of finding out how we can achieve greater buying skill and ultimate satisfaction via standards and better labeling. What do Grades A, B, and C stand for in canned peaches, milk, meat? Why don't we have sufficiently accurate standards so that the consumer will know exactly what he is getting for his money? From 78 bed sizes we've come to a standardized 4. Is this what standardization means? Does it go too far? Should standardization mean more? And what is the role of the label in shopping? Why are some labels wholly inadequate? What is the criterion of an adequate label? What education does the consumer need to understand the implications of a label? What testing and rating agencies help the consumer? What would be ideal labeling? Again, the economics and home economics teacher will be at loggerheads with a few sections of the unit. It does not come to grips with grade labeling as many see it, but it does bring together all the loose ends of the problem between two covers better than has been done for the high school student heretofore anywhere. It is a "must" (even to be torn apart) wherever consumer problems are studied.

Here you have the published work of the Consumer Education Study to date.

But what about Consumer Education? Do we get the picture? No, not yet.

Years ago they said, "What distinguishes man from beast is that man laughs." These perilous times are depriving most men of that strange distinction. Seriously, though, what *does* distinguish us from the beasts in the field and wood? *The wisdom with which we use* ourselves and our world, and all that, with our intelligence, we put into both. Consumer education which is functional and at the heart of practical living is an important philosophy of *education for use* today. It may yet make tomorrow more than another day for general education.

EDWARD REICH

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Bridging the Gulf Between Liberal and Vocational Education

ORDWAY TEAD*

There is no more important problem facing education today than the one raised by Dr. Tead in the following article. It lies at the heart of most of the confusion and bedevilment in contemporary education. Most of our woes, administrative and otherwise, have their roots in our failure either to see the implications of this problem or, having seen them, to meet them with honesty and courage. Dr Tead's analysis strikes deeply into some of our root difficulties.—[Ed.]

The demand of citizens in general and of parents in particular that the education of our children shall equip them to do something in a vocational way is present and increasing. It is confined neither to any class in society nor to any section of our country. It is, I believe, a normal demand, usually shared by the young people themselves, that at whatever point their formal education ceases they be qualified to enter some fairly specific employment which is consonant with the educational level at which they are leaving school.

In response to this demand and this sense of need, the American educational system in the past fifty years has developed with a commendable power of adaptation, even if the results are now somewhat confused. New types of institutions have multiplied to an amazing extent. How wise and how valuable all this has been, it is part of the purpose of this paper to consider.

The vocational high schools of various kinds, the land-grant colleges, the state universities with their various sub-colleges, the rapidly expanding junior colleges, the engineering colleges, the normal colleges, the specialized graduate schools, now far more varied than merely schools of law, medicine and theology—all these and no doubt others are attracting many young people who in an earlier day would have enrolled in a four-year liberal college if they had aspired to go to school at all after they were fourteen or fifteen years of age.

The consequences of this development as affecting our conception of liberal education at both secondary and college level have been many, have been important, and are in need of fresh appraisal. Such institutions, for example, as "academic" high schools and four year liberal arts colleges are increasingly on the defensive. Indeed, their

* Chairman, Board of Higher Education, City of New York.

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growth relatively is not to be compared with that of the other types of institutions just enumerated. Teachers of liberal subjects are also naturally on the defensive as to the what, the why, and the how of their individual curricular offerings.

In the more specialized institutions, on the other hand, we are also witnessing a sensible reaction which has taken the form of a widespread and wholesome scrutinizing of their curricula, arising out of a fear that there has been too much vocational and not enough broadly conceived liberal education in the offerings they have made. Engineering and teachers colleges, for example, are today in a highly self-critical state as a result of their having played down general education in the past quarter century in favor of rather narrowly specialized courses.

Junior colleges have been trying with more or less success to assure an equal balance between their vocational and their cultural course offerings. Vocational high schools as a whole are recurrently being exhorted from their friends both within and without the fold to include more general subjects in line with the principles and practice of the leaders in this field—among which, for example, the Metropolitan High School in New York City may be mentioned as an outstanding exemplar.*

And high schools of every kind are being widely criticized as "deplorably inefficient." And such a long-time student of the problem as David Snedden reflects a growing body of opinion when he says that "nowhere have the American states as yet provided adequate systems of *genuine vocational educations* for our thousands of young adults who cannot enter professional vocations."†

NEED FOR REAPPRAISAL. Opposition here between the aims and the institutional embodiments of our liberal and of vocational institutions is thus gravely in need of renewed scrutiny in respect to both objective and method. In our thinking, in our loosely defined language, and within the agencies themselves, there is a sharpness of division which, in relation to the obligations of education for a democratic society, imperatively requires redefinitions of policy and practice.

---

* *See Vocational Education,* Part I, The Forty-Second Yearbook, National Society on the Study of Education, University of Chicago, 1943.

† See "Greater Tasks for Secondary Schools" in *School and Society,* July 14, 1945, p. 17. This whole article is a confirmation of much here set forth.

What and why is this sharp separation between two kinds of education? Why is the conception of education allowed to be torn asunder in this divisive way? Has there been perhaps an unwitting growing apart of something which must now and for the future be helped to grow substantially together again? Indeed, is not a large part of the profound and general mistrust about American education which we witness today, due to our failure to reformulate our aims and reshape our methods with this dichotomy and its implications frankly faced? Can we wisely continue with a total pattern of education which so sharply separates education for employment from education for everything else?

I am myself convinced that the time is past due to restate our American educational aims with special reference to a wiser integration of the vocational facet of those aims with our total hopes, and decide what practical alterations should ensue in the methods in all of our existing institutions and in such other new ones as we may decide are needed to fill our program.

This paper will outline briefly what I see as the over all area of public concern, but it will give most particular attention to this problem as it is posed at the level of the four year college. For I believe that the time has come when practical suggestions can be made both as to how the liberal arts college can more adequately face the vocational demand already noted. And I believe that similar suggestions can be effectively adapted to other educational institutions which can result in a far greater unification between liberal and vocational objectives.

AMERICAN EDUCATIONAL OBJECTIVES. While there may possibly be nothing new to offer in statements of our educational objectives (in the light of a vast outpouring on this subject in 20 years), the relative emphases and inference do, in fact, shift from time to time; and these shifts relate themselves in part to alterations in method which reflect new emphases in aim.

I shall assume that we agree that we aspire to educate *all* our young people to be good *persons,* to be good *citizens,* to be good *family* members, to be good *workers.*

The aim, we are substantially agreed, should be to give each person, when he or she is ready for it and recognizes the need for it, as much education as he can profit by in terms of total ability, background, aptitudes, and expressed interests.

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Our kind of society—a democratic society—needs from nothing less than *all* its oncoming youth the cultivation of such capacities as the following: to know how to think logically and soundly and therefore how to attack problems in that analytical way which leads to productive conclusions; to know how to communicate accurately both in oral and in written speech; to know how to appreciate what we speak of as the world of art sensitively and with some discrimination as to relative aesthetic values; to know how to deal with people in personal relationships which will be deft, considerate, and friendly, and to be able also to mingle in necessary group associations amiably and to assume, as the occasion may offer, the responsibility of democratic leadership or the alertness of democratic followership; to know how to gain understanding of the workings of the natural world and of those procedures spoken of as the scientific method by which our mastery of that world has been progressively assured; to know how to become aware realistically of the pervasive political and economic forces at work in contemporary society; to come to know what kinds of experience and standards have been found permanently valuable in human experience; to come to care deeply, to stand for and strive for such values as have been established; and last, but by no means least, to be able to fill with competence a useful position in the world of work.

Much this same view is the premise of the interesting recent study on *General Education in a Free Society*, which sets forth as its objective in general education that students shall come *"to think effectively, to communicate thought, to make relevant judgments, to discriminate among values."*

If it be agreed that it is something like all this extensive prescription which we would like to be able to assume as the equipment of every adult in a democratic society, I submit that it requires reconsideration of the vocational aims and emphases at the several educational levels where they now seem to manifest a too great prominence.

A REAL DICHOTOMY? Indeed, it is important to observe with respect to the above enumeration of educational objectives that many of them suggest and imply the development of skills and character traits which are valuable if not essential in a considerable fraction of the world's jobs. And if this be true—if the ability to attack problems, communicate clearly, to deal effectively with people, to

know something of the scientific method, to know something of the permanent values in living—if all of this is a desirable common possession of human beings as workers irrespective of the job, we note the first vital point at which any sharp separation between so-called liberal and so-called vocational aims is less important and less clear than has often been assumed.

Another conventional way of stating this dichotomy has been to assume that there are those citizens who qualify for liberal education and those who are more properly equipped for a practical or vocational education. How completely this misconceives the problem of education for a democratic society should in the light of the above begin to be clear. It is no longer possible to operate in a defensible way the whole program of secondary and college education until the inwardness of cultural or general and of vocational education is more clearly grasped and until the unifying elements as between the two are more widely acknowledged.

Something has therefore to be said about the true meaning of cultural or general education and of its necessary vocational accompaniments. And this involves deciding what cultural, liberal or general education is; and it involves a clear picture of the vocational needs of our society as related to requisite educational preparation and to the actual distribution of human talents, capacities and interests.

EDUCATION AND CULTURE. I shall assume (in line with the recent Harvard study just referred to) that general education wisely conceived is synonymous, at least potentially, with liberal or cultural education. It has no doubt been true that typically cultural education has been conceived and imparted both in terms of outlook and subject matter with a retrospective emphasis. It has been the best that was thought and said and done. Indeed it was too often limited to influences of and heritages from the pre-industrial era.

More recently liberal education is happily being associated with culture in the sense that deGasset uses the word in his *Mission of the University* (p. 81), where he says that, "it is the system of vital ideas which each age possesses; better yet, it is the system of ideas, by which the age lives." It is our "convictions as to the hierachy of the value of things."

Whitehead speaks clearly to like effect in saying:

"The insistence in the Platonic culture on disinterested intellectual

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*appreciation is a psychological error. Action and our implication in the transition of events amid the inevitable bond of cause to effect are fundamental. And education which strives to divorce intellectual or aesthetic life from these fundamental facts carries with it the decadence of civilization. Essentially culture should be for action, and its effect should be to divest labour from the associations of aimless toil."**

WHAT IS AMERICAN CULTURE? Only in recent years have we become clearly conscious of an American culture as such and become eager for the appreciation and imparting of the value which it embraces. And even here the emphasis has tended to be on our cultural characteristics as manifested prior to the twentieth century. From a cultural point of view we are only beginning to describe, to analyze, to evaluate that rapidly expanding part of our American life which is rooted in the production and distribution of goods and services and which is the resulting impact of technology and electric power upon our way of life. The fact that all this helps to constitute, qualify and modify our culture, and that we are both illiterate about ourselves and our times and impotent to grapple with the social and psychic forces at work if we are without self-consciousness of this culture—that fact is slowly dawning on us all, as affecting the content of cultural education. In short, our conception of the cultural heritage to be transmitted should have *added* to its present historical emphasis, the contemporary phases. And this will include (though not here further elaborated) emphasis also upon the global or universalistic phases of modern life brought into prominence by the present reality of a truly world society with its plural cultures which have to establish a sympathetic working *entente* if peace is to be maintained.

The total consequence of the older retrospective view of culture has been to make it a precious, thin, sublimated concern which equipped those thus educated with no ability to cope either in general terms of social controls or of individual occupations with the life into which they moved after leaving school or college. Indeed, it all seemed to put a premium upon detachment, aloofness and unrelatedness to the workaday world.

* *The Aims of Education and Other Essays*, A. N. Whitehead, Macmillan Company, New York, 1929, p. 73.

The important exception to this generalization was, of course, the value found in the typical liberal college curriculum as preprofessional training for the law, medicine, theology, and teaching. For these callings, colleges have always been prevocational training centers and have been so without apology, presumably because they comprised the aristocracy of employments toward which college instruction could be slanted without any taint of being too mundane, too practical, or too materialistic.

Meanwhile as the conventional liberal college stemming beyond the academic high school has kept studiously aloof from the world of work which the exceptions just noted, the pressure of demand and need has brought vocational education into great prominence and popularity at both the secondary and collegiate levels. The educational problem now in consequence needing to be faced is as to the *social effectiveness* of this vocational education as assuring the turning out of young people as well equipped as citizens and human beings as they are as workers.

Quantitatively, this is the larger segment of the problem. But there is also the question, posed at the outset of this paper, of the vocational effectiveness of those young people who take the present liberal arts college course. Do they and how do they arrive at some vocational fitness?

Subordinate to this but equally a part of it, is the question as to whether young people's choices among educational offerings or their failure to choose and to go into the world of work at some particular point are governed by personal factors largely economic; and if so (as we already know) how can decisions as to which type of education is selected and how long it is to be continued, be shaped by factors of social and vocational fitness and not by the accidents of the inadequacy of family income? This latter problem is not here elaborated. But it is clear that there will be no sufficient general education for all until by scholarships, free tuitions and other devices, vocational and other educational choices are made on grounds of total suitability for the given vocation and not of financial pressure.

A little acknowledged and even unwitting separation and segregation has thus arisen between those who after 10 to 13 years of school go out, often under economic pressure, to do the "humbler" parts of the world's work and those who go on for another term of years and secure the employments which entail greater social esteem

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and material reward. Perhaps it is inevitable that all this gives rise to a certain amount of social snobbery and class division which approaches class consciousness. But what is not inevitable and is highly undesirable is that the total education of any young person should not have included in it as much of attention to liberal or general subject matter as is required to bring about a population of adults who are capable of being the responsible citizens of a democratic state.

JOBS AND TALENTS SOCIALLY VIEWED. It is thus important to look briefly in the next place, at the vocations and jobs in our society. There is, of course, a hierarchy of employments from the point of view of the amount of intelligence, training and special personal qualities which they require. We do not know whether the distribution of jobs in respect to the talent required corresponds to the familiar "bell-shaped curve" in which the distribution of intelligence (I. Q.) is usually depicted. But we do know that out of over 3000 occupations in the Dictionary of Occupations published by the U. S. Department of Labor there is a wide spread as to the intelligence, the aptitudes, interests and skills called for.

And we know too, with increasing clarity today, that for *all* employments there is a body of what we cannot escape referring to as *character traits* which we would like to assume that every applicant in the world of work possessed. These have to do with such matters as habits of promptness, thoroughness, alertness, concentration, ability to work with people and adaptability. And it *may* be true that the proportion of positions requiring these general traits *primarily* is increasing, as the mechanizing trend progresses. And it may further be true that for a considerable fraction of industrial and mercantile jobs what the employer *should* want of newcomers at work is predominantly good character traits, to which by his own employer-supported training program he can add in a few weeks time the specialized and applied skills his business peculiarly requires.

In short, an analytical view of the actual employment scene may (and I believe will) give the lie to the notion that an elaboration of narrow vocational instruction should be publicly offered to young people prior to around 18 years of age by which time they can have been adequately exposed to a flexible and attractive program of general education. Put in another way, some employers, and even

parents and the young people themselves, are surely misconceiving what they ought to expect from public education before the eighteenth year.

WHAT BUSINESS LOOKS FOR. The problem of kinds of work to be done matched against those who are to do it, needs equally realistic confronting at the college level. Testimony from business is clear that its demands for highly specialized business training in college is far less than is generally supposed. If we exclude the engineering schools and their technical training for engineering positions, what we actually find is that business in hiring college graduates is looking for potential managerial capacity. And what is valued here in the repeated assurances of business leaders is the following cluster of talents: ability to attack problems of all sorts in an orderly and penetrating fashion; ability to deal understandingly with problems that require a grasp of current economic, social and political forces and trends; ability to deal diplomatically and graciously with people; ability to apply general knowedge which coordinates material and human factors wisely in discrete workaday situations. What is needed and valued are good habits and attitudes of persistence, thoroughness, resourcefulness, personal integrity and trustworthiness, curiosity, and energetic drive.

VOCATIONAL VALUES IN LIBERAL ARTS. All this is not to deny the educational and social values of graduate courses in business, public service callings, and other semi-professional careers. It is rather to emphasize that a liberal arts course freshly conceived in relation to the interests of students and the present needs of society can have genuine vocational value (as it has already abundantly proved itself to have) without extending its instruction into areas of vocational techniques. For it is becoming increasingly true that leaders who are generalizers, integrators, and synthesizers are needed in business and public service, perhaps even more acutely than limited technicians are needed. Such leaders can in the future as in the past come from among the graduates of liberal colleges. It is not a play on words but the accurate prescription of a need to say that colleges have in the future to train more *specialists in generalization*. And for this kind of capacity the liberal college at its best and with the newer emphasis within the general course can fulfill this vocational assignment.

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In other words, there is needed a re-fusing and re-uniting of educational objectives so that *every* student assuredly becomes the best total person he can be as of that age when he leaves school and becomes ready simultaneously to make a start at an employment which is consonant with his special abilities. The over all educational pattern would by analogy resemble a tree the trunk* of which is that body of education necessary for the art of living which it is everyone's privilege to have and the duty of the state to supply to everyone in pedagogical forms which appeal. And only when the growth of all has reached a point that is approximately represented by the end of the present second year of high school period would offshoots wisely begin to branch off from the trunk in the form of explicit vocational courses.

And at every point where this explicit vocationalizing starts, it should presumably not be allowed at first to take more than a quarter of the time which would be increased to one half when the general education as of that age level had been more satisfactorily covered. General and semi-vocational courses below the college level might thus run parallel through the curriculum until the eighteenth or nineteenth birthday was reached, at which time it could be safely assumed that more than fifty per cent vocational instruction was in order because it was building upon an adequate prior general education.

NEEDED: A COMMON CORE. Concretely, this should hopefully mean an obliterating of the sharp distinction between different kinds of secondary schools (academic, general, commercial, trade or vocational) in favor of secondary schools with a common core of general education up to around 17 to 18 years of age with an increasing specializing in the later two secondary school years.

I shall, however, be seriously misunderstood at this point if I do not make explicit the sense in which the phrase "pedagogical forms which appeal" is here used. I have reference to the rightful provision of varied and diversified methods of instruction related to individual student differences. I am calling for a flexible curriculum. Shop work, manual activities, group projects now often extra-curricular in nature—these can be the best possible instrument

*I find this analogy also being used in *General Education in a Free Society*, the Report of a Harvard Committee, The Harvard University Press, 1945.

of general education for certain students, if the *aim* of general education is held clearly in view by the teacher. General education does not imply solely verbal or text-book or intellectualistic methods.

Similarly for those students who are at the college level, the general education would be full time in the first two years; and only after that might specializing of a general sort in the direction of engineering and business training take place, with a fifth year predominantly vocational.

INTERPENETRATION OF OBJECTIVES. If now the view is accepted that a unifying of educational objectives and, to some extent of process, is sound and necessary as against the sharp separations of today, the question at once arises as to how the interplay of cultural and vocational influences, interests and emphases can be best assured. I see three levels at which the problem must be addressed: (1) in the restatement of educational objectives and policies by teacher-training institutions, school boards, and boards of trustees; (2) in the conscious interrelation of general and special courses in the curriculum of each student; and (3) in the unifying within each unit course of considerations of cultural and vocational reference.

The restatement of directives and policies is actually the overall theme of this paper. I am urging that we need agreement that *a democracy has to afford a common core of general education for all its young people up to eighteen years of age designed to prepare them for family life, citizenship and personal orientation, as well as for vocation, and that vocational education should only enter in its appropriate place when the general education is well on its way to its conclusion (as of the age level at which the young person is leaving school).*

A parenthetical but important comment may well be injected here to the effect that we can no longer assume that the student who leaves school at eighteen years of age has all the education necessary for coping with all the later responsibilities of life. And our public educational policy will have to assure attractive, varied, and appealing offerings at the adult level. We must in the future be prepared to supply at the time of the sensed need of adults that fresh material and training for family responsibilities, leisure time activities, further vocational intensification and general intellectual maturation, which they come to find they lack and want.

It is a specific condition of translating the thesis of this paper

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into operating actuality that it be subscribed to and taught by teachers' colleges and be propagated for by educational leaders generally. Reviewing and reshaping educational objectives is the Number One task.

Second, we come to the interrelationship to be attained between general and special course offerings in the curriculum of each individual school and student. This comes down in part to pedagogical method, but it is nonetheless important for that. Concretely, the teachers of the humanities, the social studies, and the natural sciences have the duty of occasionally orienting their subject matter to its vocational possibilities. A secondary aim for all teachers is to convey a sense of "how my course relates to the world of work, how it is used there, where its matter has application there." I submit that the teacher of every subject can usefully now and again remind the class that his subject matter does have vocational meaning in *some* direction. I do not say that every general course has, obviously and directly, to justify itself vocationally, or have obvious vocational contexts. But if it is wise to include a given course in the curriculum, the chances are excellent that in one way or another it impinges upon our operating economy and dominant culture, and that relationship can profitably be made explicit.

Although the reference is not explicitly vocational, there is much to commend the related view recently expressed by Professor Axel Brett.* *"If our subjects in the humanities are to have transfer value, the instructor must teach with transfer in mind. If a principle learned in one situation is to be successfully applied to other situations, the instructor and the student will have to include this objective in the educational approach. The more explicit we make the objectives the more effective will be the results."*

An equally important facet of all general instruction is that the *byproducts* of good learning should be consciously striven for. Lucid expression, adequacy of communication—these should be aims of *every* course.

A MUTUAL RESPONSIBILITY. Critical appraisal of facts, conscious use of a problem-solving method (the scientific method), elegance of execution, persistence in attack, thoroughness of effort, promptness, cheerfulness, friendliness in human dealings—all of

* See his *Instrumentalism and the Humanities* in *Journal of the American Association of University Professors*, June 1945, p. 187.

these I must insist are rightful byproducts of the study with every good teacher of every subject. And they should be consciously held in view by every teacher as necessary and valuable aspects of the total learning experience going forward. The relevance of this emphasis upon byproduct learning is, of course, that the total way that the student approaches and handles *any work* is an invaluable lesson when it comes to his handling of his vocational specialty. Technical workmanship at the drafting board or at the operating table, for example, is compounded of character traits as much as it is of specific technical mastery, if total performance is to be satisfactory. Every good teacher is thus always helping the student to build into his equipment the qualities which are required to be a good worker in the moral and social sense, even if not directly vocational or technical sense.

Conversely, the vocational teacher at his best at successive levels of secondary, college or professional school, will explicitly orient the technical job into its total, social, functional and cultural setting. Every vocation has its history, its science, its artistry, its great figures, its *rationale*—and increasingly its ethics. In short, it has its general bearings on life as a whole. All of this the student has a right to become aware of; and the teacher therefore has a duty of interpretation.

That cultural and vocational teachers have in each particular secondary school or college *to know each other better* in terms of the possible connections and interactions of subject matter becomes obvious from this. The cultural teacher has to know more, and indeed often to care more, about the world of work as it bears upon his subject. And the vocational teacher has to become more interested in the cultural setting, functional bearing and social controls that do or should orient his special skill into the total social scene. This may sound like a counsel of perfection, but here is a kind of cross-fertilizing which teacher education in the future has to be more consciously involved in.

This means, of course, that it is no longer possible meaningfully to separate into watertight compartments subject matter which liberates and subject matter which improves skill and working competence. Education is *one process*, whether it be (as we say) of the hand, the eye, or the head, and it has to be restored to greater unity of handling and of instruction by educational specialists.

My third point elaborates the previous point by asking of each

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liberal arts teacher that he have ready to use in each course he offers the answer to these questions:

1. What contemporary occupations are illumined as to background, social significance and functional effectiveness, by any knowledge deriving from my subject?
2. What occupations make direct use of my subject? How? Are the methods general or specific?
3. If my subject has little or no direct occupational relevance, what avocational significance do I believe attaches to it?

Indeed, at the college level let the teacher press home to himself the full force of the issue by going on with his self-examination with such questions as:

LINKS WITH THE OUTSIDE WORLD. What do people who have had college educations have to do in the world to earn a living today? Where are the graduates of my courses for the past ten years occupied; and how; and with what results on their minds and souls? What do I know about the hour-by-hour content of the world's callings upon which so many hours of former students are expended? Does not my very exemption from labor in the business world place some burden upon me to be able occasionally to make a connection for students between what I am doing and what they will be doing—between what happens in my course and what happens in the world outside? In answering, as every teacher should several times in each semester, every student's tacit question: "Why should I take your course?" am I able to include in my reply any suggestion of relevance to livelihood?

Many teachers will find that they do not have the answers to these inquiries ready to hand. And the field work and exploration necessary to discover the answers should have salutary value. Questions along these lines would almost certainly help the teacher to fulfill one condition of successful education in that, as Whitehead says, *"* * * there must always be a certain freshness in the knowledge dealt with. It must be either new in itself or invested with some novelty of application to the new world of new times. Knowledge does not keep any better than fish. Somehow it must come to the student, as it were, just drawn out of the sea and with the freshness of its immediate importance."*

I repeat that the importance of college subjects is not primarily in relation to any narrow occupational usefulness that might be imputed

to them. But *importance* is what every subject must be invested with by the teacher. And this is one of the several ways in which ideas are important; namely, because of some bearing they may have upon the significance of the world's work. In fact, far more existent cultural study has direct vocational value than professors usually appreciate.

Already in much subject matter a breakdown of the barrier between cultural and vocational is beginning to occur, and it can occur more if educational counselors will give the right guidance on course selection to students and on course orientation to teachers. Many English courses, many speech courses, much psychology, economics and history are, to name but a few, pre-professional for numerous callings. Do students realize this? Do teachers grasp this? And if not, why not? The answer, I suspect, is in the unawareness of college faculty folk as to what goes on outside.

The vocational justification, is of course, *only one* among several important reasons for offering courses. But it is the justification which has not been deemed quite culturally respectable in the liberal colleges and therefore has been ignored. Its elevation to a position of being an explicit objective will be a notable advance.

This is not the place to offer details as to how the college teacher can gain knowledge of the occupational relations of his subject. New techniques are being evolved here under the new sense of this need. One item, however, deserves emphasis, namely, the use of the vacation periods for study, visitation, interviews and actual job getting and job holding efforts that are specifically designed to enlarge the teacher's first hand knowledge of the relevancies of his subject to today's life. I know one institution where it is becoming a point of honor for professors to devote their sabbatical years to getting a paid job of a nonteaching nature and holding it satisfactorily, in some field related to their major competence. Need it be emphasized that the freshness of attack on subject matter which such teachers are destined to bring back to their classes is greatly to be desired?

Similarly, with vocational teachers at the college level, as in engineering and business courses, they have to be as concerned with the why as with the what, with the problem of values as with the problems of operation, with issues of social control of techniques and of scientific advances. Vocational teachers are sending students directly both into corporations and into the professional world. What of standards of ethical practice? What of the place and function of

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vocational associations and worker unions? What of the professional worker's status in a corporation whether as a paid hireling or as a responsible party to collective dealing with management?*

These are but a few of the issues which are part of the broader view of vocational instruction—calculated to assure that trained workers come through a kind of educational experience in which their personal and group relation to the management and ownership interests is sophisticated enough to lessen the chances of the grosser forms of exploitation being practiced upon them. If, as I believe, we are actually (and in part legally) building up within our economic life something which may with some accuracy be referred to as a constitutional economic government, it will be essential that the presumptive citizens of that government know how to conduct themselves as such—in respect to responsibilities no less than rights. Thus far vocational as well as general education has soft-pedalled a confronting of this whole delicate but dynamic area. In short, vocational teachers at all levels have in the future to surround and support the training they offer with a realistic gasp of the total *milieu* in which the work for which they train is to take place. And that realism has to include a democratic bias in all its economic implications.

TASKS AHEAD. If now it be specifically asked what there is in this program of revised educational policy to assure that our liberal colleges will in the future enable their graduates to be able to "do something" in the world of work, the answer has several aspects.

First, a far better job of giving vocational information and guidance has admittedly to be done. Space limitations preclude expansion of this vital point here.

Second, the values of the alternating study-work program—initiated at the University of Cincinnati and developed at Antioch College most explicitly for the general student—have to be more widely realized an applied. Summer work (or winter field work periods) under the guidance of the college may well help here. Thus only can the field work experience help young people to find out what they do and do not want to do and what they are and are not able to do.

* The special problems of vocational education for business at the college level I have discussed more fully in "Orienting Business Education After the War" in *Advanced Management*, October, 1943, p. 137.

Third, it has to be realized by parents and students that for many jobs the kinds of qualities developed by good general education are those which do in fact fit them best for work—especially as we look at the supervisory and executive levels.

Fourth, college teachers have to realize that insofar as they are training their students to become teachers of their specialty (and there is rightfully a good deal of this), such training will produce good teachers only if a good deal more than advanced, specialized subject-matter is required and is learned.

CONCLUSION. The breach between general and vocational education has to be greatly narrowed. Vocational education in the narrow, specialized sense, should not be commenced until a foundation in a socially oriented general education is assured for *all* young people. And when such vocational education is begun, it should not, until the top reaches of professional study are undertaken, be dissociated from some continuing exposure to general subjects keyed to the maturing intellectual interests.

Teachers both general and vocational have likewise to see their tasks as more nearly identical than is now typically the case. The teacher of liberal arts has to know the contemporary world better. And the teacher of vocational subjects has to be culturally more richly grounded.

The unified and over all objective of educating whole persons has to be restored to centrality, both in the training of teachers and the shaping of educational policy by those responsible for curriculum building.

We will only get good workers for our kind of society as we qualify all our youth to enter that society as persons and citizens no less than as prospective job holders.

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Guiding Principles for Construction of a Curriculum for a General Diploma

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In the attempt to formulate and organize courses of study which comprise a curriculum leading toward the General Diploma, one needs to be guided by the local history of curriculum requirements, by the purposes for which the diploma was instituted, and by the needs of the students. The areas of requirements, purpose, and pupil needs are, of course, not independent of each other. On the contrary, they are intimately related and in a real sense act and react upon each other. The pattern of these relationships conforms in large measure to the basic consideration advanced in two recent reports:

1. *Education for All American Youth*—Educational Policies Commission of the N. E. A.
2. *General Education in a Free Society*—The Harvard Report.

In brief, the general diploma should eventuate from a curriculum intended to serve the interests, purposes, and abilities of all youth, as distinguished from the purposes of college-bound youth, and to include general education, as distinguished from special education, in the sense of the Harvard Report.

At once, it needs to be emphasized that the general diploma is not to be regarded as a diploma of second class or of inferior grade. The possible use of it as the objective of pupils of lesser academic ability exclusively is a perversion and abuse of purposes to be served.

THE HIGH SCHOOL'S FORMER ROLE. When the high school existed as an institution of college preparation, the curriculum naturally consisted of an aggregate of subjects of study which were designed to meet college demands. These requirements normally included English, social studies, mathematics, science, and foreign languages. Specified units of credit in each subject area, aggregating 15 units, were set up. Each subject offered became the foundation learning for pursuit of the respective subjects at the college level. To demonstrate proficiency in subject mastery, the existing Regents Examination system was utilized as part of the requirements for an Academic Diploma.

High school English, mathematics, science, and so forth were so organized as to assure the student competence to pursue more of the same at a higher level of difficulty and organization. This is not

to overlook other important values, direct and indirect, resulting from the pursuit of these studies. Yet, the central fact remains that basic preparation in subject content was of primary importance.

THE CHANGING HIGH SCHOOL. When the pressure of social and economic forces resulted in an almost explosive growth of the high school population and the high school tended to become the "common school" of all youth, new demands and needs developed concomitantly. Additional subjects were added in the areas of commercial education, industrial arts and crafts, strictly vocational work, and courses ministering to special interests and talents, such as art, music, journalism, speech and dramatics. The applicability of these new areas, both for the academic diploma and for college admission, remained strictly circumscribed, with a grudging acceptance under pressure making slow progress.

In recognition of the introduction of new subject areas, of the presence of a large and significant group for whom high school was to be terminal educational experience, and of the inclusion of many pupils whose interests and abilities were not being served by existing courses of study, a curriculum resulting in a new type of diploma became inevitable.

MODIFICATION. A "general diploma" based upon a modification of the older academic diploma requirements as instituted. Specified units in prescribed subject areas, broadened to be sure, and examination requirements still obtained. The course of study changes frequently made concessions to lesser ability by modifications of existing syllabi in the form of reduced content, more practical emphases, or changed time arrangements. The essential structure of the requirements, the formal examinations, the subject content, continued with dilution and diminution, but largely unchanged in character.

It became clearer that it was the responsibility of the high school to minister to the needs, interests, and abilities of all youth who were destined to become an important part of the democratic body politic in adult life. Failure, elimination from school, and working below potential capacity because of lack of interest were liabilities in a program designed to prepare students for active participation in the responsibilities of enlightened citizenship, and for economic and social competence.

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THE NEWER GENERAL DIPLOMA. The newer general diploma can serve the broader purposes and interests of this larger number of non-college-bound, but life-bound, youth. The basic requirements in English, social studies, general science, art, music and health education, set for all high school graduates, remain. These constitute the common core, the unifying experience advocated in the Harvard Report. To prevent too wide and too thin a dispersal of subject electives, groupings of units are still entailed, but with wider choices and more flexible combinations of related areas of study. These groupings and choices are aimed at ministering to special interests and talents.

FREEDOM AND RESPONSIBILITY. A radical step was taken in the elimination of the requirement of formal examinations. The important consequence of this change was to free schools and teachers of the "shackles" of the Regents Examination system. This step offers both a new degree of freedom and a new responsibility in the matter of organizing courses of study and subject content adapted to the interests, the purposes, and the abilities of students. The responsibility consists in so ordering the content and the method as to insure the maintenance of competent standards, inducing students to work to the level of their ability, and enlisting their worth-while interests in achieving their own purposes and those of society. The new degree of freedom consists in the opportunity to examine, without dependence upon existing courses of study, the whole range of proper educational aims with a view to the incorporation of that content, those outcomes, and those experiences which are truly meaningful to the pupil.

UNIT PLANNING. Stating it in another way, each high school course of study (in English, Social Studies, Mathematics, and so forth) should be planned as a unit with the purpose of providing each student with the most valuable personal and social educational experience he is capable of receiving in those years, with little reference to courses which he may or may not take in succeeding years. This basic and comprehensive principle in no way precludes sequential learning and everbroadening scope in succeeding years.

The difficulty of achieving this and is matched only by its essentiality. That the end needs to be achieved is equally certain.

Textbooks and Tolerance—A Reply to Mr. Coyle

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Your teacher has just finished telling you about the book. You know wou're going to like it because it's full of exciting adventures on land and sea. So you open it and read a few pages with real delight. But before you have finished the first chapter, the taste of pleasure inside you has turned sour. The author is talking about some of your own people, and he is making them seem low and cheap and unworthy of respect. You're a little confused about what to do, but at the first chance you take the book up to your teacher and tell her, "I'm not going to read any more of this. It's no good." You would like to say more, but you don't know how. You just feel hurt and sick inside.

That's about how it was with one student not long ago. He had grave reason for his objection. A scene in the book portrayed a group of footloose Negroes gambling with dice. One of them was depicted in direct description by the author—not in dialogue—as a "buck nigger." A little farther on, the narrative had the hero hoping that "that darky" would carry out their agreement. The apparent attitude of both the author and his hero was one of condescending superiority toward the Negro.

It is easy to understand why the student, himself a Negro, was offended. This textbook's treatment of his group revealed several of the earmarks of the racial stereotype. It made the Negro an inferior person, as does much modern literature in magazines and books, and on the radio and screen. If we are to believe this type of characterization, the average Negro must be a lazy, irresponsible, ignorant, and comical rascal.

EVILS OF STEREOTYPES. *Racial stereotypes in literature create prejudice and an attitude of superiority toward the members of minority groups.* Through such characterizations the Negro, the Italian, the Irishman, the Mexican, the Jew, the Catholic, and others are portrayed not as individuals, but as persons who are stamped with certain typical, inferior or repellent characteristics supposedly peculiar to their group. Textbooks containing racial stereotypes obviously are offensive to some of our students, but the objection

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to such books cuts still deeper. It is bad enough that young Johnny should suffer the hurt of finding the character of his own people debased in a school book. It is worse that such misrepresentations arouse false notions and animosities in the minds of William and George and Joan and Mabel—who do not happen to belong to his group and who accept the stereotype of Johnny's people as a true picture.

The danger of the stereotype should not be minimized. Some see only the offense that it gives to the person in the derided group. Some believe that the members of almost *any* group are likely to be sensitive—perhaps unduly so—about fancied hurts. This is to miss the central issue; the injury to the feelings of the victim of the stereotype is but a pin-prick as compared with the gash made in the attitudes of others toward him.

Intolerance is bred, not born. Read the autobiographies of leading Negroes for a revealing pattern of how it grows. The little tot, just past the toddling stage, sometimes plays with both black and white children in his neighborhood. No distinctions appear then. Later when attitudes are formed by external influences, lines are drawn and barriers erected. Often the world comes crashing about the head of the Negro child as he awakens to a realization that he is no longer fully accepted by his former playmates and friends, that he is considered an inferior. This kind of superior-inferior concept of peoples is what the racial stereotype in literature helps to create, helps to reinforce.

THE QUESTION. Should textbooks containing racial stereotypes continue to be purchased for the boys and girls whom we are educating?* An affirmative response to this question was offered by Mr. Frank J. Coyle in a recent *High Points* article entitled *Tolerance for Intolerant Literature.* Mr. Coyle's article was an answer to my discussion of *Racial Stereotypes in Our English Textbooks,* which appeared in the January *High Points.* The statements in my previous article need not be repeated here. My colleague's reply, however, deserves serious examination.

Mr. Coyle maintains in effect that the barring of books from the approved textbook lists is itself an act of intolerance. Why not, he

* Happily, the textbook cited at the beginning of this article is no longer on the approved list. Copies still in use are bookroom stocks created by former purchases.

says, be tolerant to the extent of allowing racial stereotypes to appear in our textbooks—and then use them as springboards to lessons which will teach true tolerance?

AGREEMENT. In terms of ultimate objectives Mr. Coyle's philosophy and mine are nowhere in conflict. We agree on the need for eliminating intercultural frictions. We both deplore the erroneous concepts of racial and religious groups created by literary stereotypes. We both recognize that the author generally has no vicious intent, but we also realize that—wittingly or not—he has created a booby trap imperiling the attitudes of the unwary reader.

DISAGREEMENT. Where Mr. Coyle and I differ, however, is on whether our high school pupils should continue to read these books. There are very cogent reasons for rejecting the plea that they remain in use in our classrooms. Let's examine Mr. Coyle's arguments.

TOLERANCE FOR INTOLERANCE. We should not oppose intolerance with more intolerance. Agreed! But it is one thing to accept the man and another to accept his ideas. Each of us is the creature of his limitations—the place where he was born, the gang he played with as a child, the experiences he has had, the people he has met, the chances he has had to see life whole. We cannot despise the cripple for limping. We cannot condemn the blind man for groping. We cannot, must not be intolerant of the writer whose limited horizon prevents him from seeing the falsity of a characterization or the danger of its effect upon his readers.

Tolerance for the author—yes! Tolerance for his right to speak his mind—yes! But no question of tolerance or intolerance is involved when it comes to selecting for the education of our youth materials that are free from error. We would not purchase an arithmetic textbook which declared that two and two make five. We would not approve a geography which stated that the world is flat. False notions of numbers, of places, or *of people* do not belong in our textbooks. *The rejection of error is not intolerance.*

PRESERVING OUR LITERARY HERITAGE. Racial stereotypes can and should be eliminated from school literature either by publishers' revisions or by dropping the undesirable book from the approved list. Mr. Coyle holds that such a procedure would cheat our students of their literary heritage. This contention is worth

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considering, for certainly our boys and girls should not be deprived of the great and good books of the past or present.

However, the schools have never attempted to present *all* the classics, nor have they endeavored to teach every accepted book or selection in a completely unedited form. It has never been regarded as essential that high school pupils read only complete and unexpurgated editions of Shakespearean plays or other works. Many a line, many a scene has been canceled out by the editorial blue pencil. Such Bowdlerizing need not be limited to the saucy or salacious; it may properly be extended to other influences unsuitable for the immature reader.

Some books, truly, may be beyond redemption through editing. If these must be lost to us entirely, let us say farewell to them without too many regrets. Mr. Coyle calls the racial stereotypes in our literature "the ugly items of our heritage." It is not these ugly items we want to preserve. If we are to arrive at truth through literature, let us use as a medium that literature which presents truth.

The proportion of our textbooks containing racial stereotypes is relatively small. Discard this fraction, and there remains a great heritage of literature capable of exerting good, rather than harmful, influences upon our students. Let's preserve what is worth preserving.

DEVELOPING DISCERNMENT. We should, of course, teach our students to be discerning and discriminating readers. The study of literature certainly involves coming to grips with ideas, which are the very essence of the best books. Our boys and girls should know, as Mr. Coyle suggests, that literature may contain falsehoods, as well as truths.

It is also our purpose, however, to teach truths, not falsehoods. To get at truth through falsehood is to take a devious route. Yet that is the proposal urged by the author of *Tolerance for Intolerant Literature* when he argues that we ought to keep racial stereotypes in our school books. Use them, he says, as springboards for lessons on the undesirable attitudes of the authors. Often we have tried to do just that—and have failed. This is the negative approach; logically and pedagogically it is unsound.

THE NEGATIVE APPROACH. An analogy from the field of social studies may be illuminating. Just as we are trying today to

advance the ideals of intercultural harmony, so we are also seeking to insure an acceptance of our democratic ideals of government. Books which view democratic government in an *unfavorable* light are not hard to find. Under the principle of freedom of speech we have extended tolerance to authors who write, and to publishers who sell, these books. But when have we approved their use in the classroom? When have we supported the theory that they should serve as springboards to discussion for the purpose of proving their authors wrong? Would we place on our approved list any social studies textbook which proposed to install democratic ideals by presenting undemocratic ones? Why do so with English textbooks?

Further, it is an accepted pedagogical principle to avoid placing before the student a model of *wrong* practice or thinking—unless attention is conspicuously drawn to the fact that it is wrong or unless it is placed side by side with the correct form for comparison. Using books containing racial stereotypes to develop desirable attitudes toward other groups is a violation of this principle. When the student, for instance, reads a novel that characterizes the Negro as inferior, he finds nothing in the book to warn him of the incorrectness or unfairness of the portrayal. All the author's art is directed toward making the reader accept his characterization. The caption "Wrong" does not appear as it would, let's say, before the incorrect example in a grammar text. For the high school student the immediate reaction to the racial stereotype is likely to be acceptance.

But, says Mr. Coyle, the teacher should then stimulate a discussion, should lead the pupil to a more discriminating and discerning evaluation of the author's attitude. The alert teacher will certainly attempt to do so, but his task is difficult. Against the emotional impact of a great poetic drama like the *Merchant of Venice* the teacher must pit the arguments and apologies for Shylock that he can elicit from the class. Against the colorful, punch-packing, ribtickling appeal of a popular novelist who makes the Negro a butt for his humor, the teacher must interpose a discussion of the undesirability of such attitudes. Can we be sure that the teacher's lesson will prove more effective than the author's? If we adopt this method of teaching students to be discerning readers, we are taking the hard way.

THE POSITIVE APPROACH. We *can* teach our students to be on guard against the racial stereotype, to be intelligent and discrim-

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inating readers. Whenever that is our purpose, however, it is the good and true examples which should be presented first. The comparison with what is false in literature should be made afterward. We do not need to furnish the "bad" examples in the "good" books through which we strive to establish a love of literature. Youngsters will be able to cite more than enough contrasting instances of erroneous concepts and distortions from their knowledge of motion pictures, radio sketches, popular books and magazines.

The approach to developing desirable attitudes in our young people should be positive. Introduce them to the authentic representation of the Negro in Bucklin Moon's *The Darker Brother*—to the hard-working, self-respecting, intelligent, dignified American with the darker skin who is striving for the full acceptance that should be his. Let them read of the humanity-loving work of the Catholic priest in *Father Tim's Charities* by Dan Forrestal, Jr. Let them feel the warmth of the story of the Irishman who found "the Christ Child in the heart of a Jew," as told in *The Answer* by H. S. Edwards. Give them the chance to read McKinlay Kantor's *That Greek Dog*, the rousing narrative of Basilio Barbilis and how his genuine Americanism triumphed over the "100 per cent law-abiding white Americans" of the infamous Anti-Greek League. Give them a glimpse of the sturdy Bohemian and Scandinavian immigrants in Willa Cather's *O Pioneers!* and in O. E. Rölvaag's *Giants in the Earth*. Let them make the acquaintance of young Julia whose parents were Italian and who emerged triumphant over social pressures in *Julia Is Educated* by Sidney Meller. Let them meet Ma and Pa Karas, the Czechs who became the best of Americans in Adamic's *From Many Lands*.*

In our classes and in the textbooks we teach, boys and girls ought to study literary portraits that emphasize the dignity and worth of individuals and groups. After students are thus equipped with the necessary touchstones, they will be ready to examine critically the false notions of races and creeds appearing in other literature—that does not bear the school's stamp of approval.

* *The Answer* appears in *Short Stories As You Like Them* by Wood and Husband, published by Harcourt, Brace and Company. All of the other selections mentioned, excluding Cather's *O Pioneers* and Rölvaag's *Giants in the Earth*, appear in full or as excerpts in *This Way to Unity* by Herrick and Askwith, published by Oxford Book Company.

Towards a Theory of Supervision

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"Do teachers benefit from supervision? That depends on whether you question the teachers or their supervisors, according to the results of a survey conducted among the faculties of three Brooklyn School districts."

—N. Y. *Sun*, March 5, 1945

The relation of supervisor to teachers constitutes a perplexing problem on which much has already been written and said. In some cases the relation has been a happy one; in others it has been marred by frictions and antagonisms resulting from personality clashes, poor teaching, dictatorial attitudes, or conflicting philosophies. Our own experience has convinced us that not all of the difficulties which arise are due to malevolent supervisors who deliberately contrive to make their subordinates unhappy. Teachers who resent helpful criticisms and directive suggestions are sometimes to blame. Well-meaning but misguided supervisors who show a lack of understanding of their distinctive functions and the limits within which they must carry on their work also create serious problems.

Although we have no epoch-making revelations, we wish to set forth a theory of supervision which, in our opinion, clearly indicates the areas in which supervisors can operate with profit, and those in which their activities must be circumscribed. More specifically, we propose to raise these problems for discussion:

(1) The nature of teaching
(2) What makes a good teacher
(3) What makes a good supervisor
(4) The supervisor as administrator
(5) The supervisor as critic
(6) The supervisor's observation report

The Nature of Teaching

OUR THESIS. It is our major premise that teaching is essentially an art; that in its fundamental aspects it is similar to music, poetry, painting, sculpture, and belles-lettres. Like all arts, it has its roots in a concrete body of organized facts which represent the scientific foundations of art. *Education* is the name which has been given to that body of knowledge and information which lays the foundations for the art of teaching. Efforts have been made to give it the

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status of a science (or at least a *social* science) through the rigorous application of the scientific method: a fairly definite body of facts or truths has been established by empirical methods; minimum standards of scholarship and norms of intelligence have been tentatively set up; there have been considerable observation of and experimentation with techniques and procedures; findings have been subjected to further experimentation to determine whether or not their validity is impaired by specific application (verification).

But again, even as a complete knowledge of the scientific bases for playing the violin or piano does not make a good musician, so, too, one who has mastered the fundamentals of education, as embodied in its principles and methods, has only laid the foundation for good teaching, but does not become, *ipso facto*, a good teacher.

WHAT MAKES A GOOD TEACHER? Doubtless, it will be difficult for anyone to put his finger upon the *sine qua non* of the good teacher. There are wide differences of opinion regarding his characteristics; many of his qualities are intangible and do not lend themselves to precise definition. But in a general way, if our premises are sound, a good teacher is a good artist. On the objective side, he is a scholar, familiar with the principles and practices of education, educational psychology, and thoroughly at home both in the subject he is to teach and in the several related fields. (The tendency of recent years to stress educational methods has unwisely relegated scholarship to a subordinate role, so that in many instances a teacher is skilled in how to teach but not sufficiently informed on what to teach. Despite the advances made in pedagogic techniques, sound scholarship is still important. Other things being equal, the wider the areas of knowledge possessed by the teacher, the greater the service he can render his students.)

Subjectively—and this is the crux of the matter—he is a skilled and talented craftsman who applies the tools of his trade in his own unique way of imparting information and in moulding character and attitudes. He likes young people, and understands their problems. He has a personality which "clicks," a point of view which inspires, an intellect which challenges, and a heart which arouses sympathy and fair play.

WHAT MAKES A GOOD SUPERVISOR? Again, if our premises are sound, it should not be difficult to indicate in a general way

the earmarks of the good supervisor. His characteristics are essentially those of the good administrator and the art critic. Although a clearly-defined line of demarcation may not be possible, the two are fundamentally different. *In evaluating the administrative and scientific aspects of a teacher's work, the supervisor may be a strict and ruthless critic; where its artistic aspects are concerned, criticism is still valid and tenable, but he cannot be dogmatic; he must temper criticism with tolerance and even skepticism.*

The history of all art is the history of disagreement, almost violent at times, regarding the merits of approaches, styles, and techniques. The theories and practices of musicians, painters, sculptors, writers and poets have been matters of endless controversies; teachers and teaching techniques have not been exempt from these conflicts, as books on educational philosophy readily disclose.

Does this mean that each teacher is the measure of truth for himself, and teacher criticism is invalid or impossible? Indeed not! *But the implication we wish to develop is that there are definite limits within which criticism munt be kept, beyond which the critic is invalidly substituting his own conception of art for that of the teacher.*

Let us specifically apply this thesis to an analysis of the supervisor as (1) school or department administrator, and (2) critic, where actual teaching is involved.

The Supervisor as Administrator

ESSENCE OF DEMOCRATIC SUPERVISION. We do not needlessly wish to belabor problems of administration. Much has been written in this field, and the practical experience of supervisors and teachers makes any extensive treatment of this subject unnecessary. The general tendency among modern educators has been to characterize the administration of a school or department as a collective democratic enterprise, and the supervisor as the co-ordinator of its activities.

There are undoubtedly a few teachers who hold that it is anomalous to speak of democratic supervision for, they argue, the two are incompatible. While it may be open to little question that persons in authority frequently become arrogant, show bureaucratic tendencies, and identify the general good with their own undebated beliefs, it is also true that some teachers, like all human beings, are sometimes tempted to take the easy road, and will shirk responsibilities wherever possible. Some controls are therefore necessary. In a relative

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sense, democracy can be maintained by a give-and-take on both sides, especially if teachers demonstrate a willingness to assume the responsibilities of democratic collaboration.

What is particularly important, however, is that democracy is not simply a question of form but rather of spirit and fact. Where supervisors are loud in democratic asseverations while their teachers tremble in and out of their presence, one may well be suspicious of the extent to which democracy prevails.

Specifically, democratic supervision involves, among other things, such diverse matters as:

(1) Rotation of all onerous departmental jobs
(2) Assignment of classes, good and bad, to all alike, including the chairman
(3) Raising no issues of indispensability for departmental "favorites"
(4) Giving all viewpoints a fair hearing at departmental and school conferences, and bearing no ill-will towards teachers who, honestly motivated, differ sharply from, and even clash with, their supervisor and perhaps other teachers on fundamental issues of pedagogy and administration
(5) Willingness to discuss with teachers not only the contents of observation reports, but their underlying philosophy and implicit assumptions

REASONABLE DEMANDS. In his role as supervisor of matters involving administration, classroom management, subject matter, and scholarship of the teacher, the supervisor has relatively objective problems to deal with, and, consequently, may hold his teachers to definite standards. (1) He may insist upon such elementary practices as regularity of attendance, and punctuality in arriving at school and in meeting all classes. (2) He may demand an honest day's work. Teaching entails responsibilities of sound scholarship, daily preparation, and being on the job in the classroom throughout the day. (3) He may expect cleanliness, orderliness, neatness and a reasonably attractive room at all times. (4) He may ask that all official records be accurately kept, and ready when requested.

SUPERVISORY HELP. The supervisor's administrative duties have as one of their major objectives the creation of those preliminary conditions which make it possible for teachers to function effectively as better artists. There are a number of important things the supervisor can do to aid teachers.

(1) He can provide teachers with necessary books, maps, and

teaching devices to eliminate material obstacles to effective teaching. (2) He can integrate the work of the Department and act as a clearing house for its activities. (3) He can assume leadership and actively participate in the preparation of syllabi and other guides for departmental activities. (4) The supervisor must have an open mind and an open door so that teachers will feel free to come to him with their problems. (5) Many of the problems of teachers are fundamentally community problems. Regardless of one's socio-educational philosophy, the fact remains that the school, for the most part, follows, not leads, the community. If the supervisor is sincere in his desire to help teachers, he must show the courage of his convictions by espousing their cause on many fronts. Because he is familiar with school conditions, he must especially put his weight behind programs for greater school appropriations, larger faculties, and additional clerical staffs.

The Supervisor as Art Critic

LIMITATIONS UPON THE SUPERVISOR. If one accepts our thesis, that teaching *per se* is essentially an art, and that after the supervisor has concerned himself with its administrative aspects, previously set forth, his critical functions are limited, a number of important conclusions follow.

(1) *The supervisor as an art critic must recognize that he does not dwell in the realm of absolutes and that all criticism is relative; that his own responses to his teachers depend very largely upon his own personality and subjective values, and not upon any verifiable, objective evidence, referable to a universally accepted frame of reference.*

(2) The supervisor must maintain a spirit of open-mindedness regarding the relative worth of different teaching techniques. Every good lesson must have a specific aim, must unfold in a logical manner, must retain the interest of the pupils, and must be keyed to their intellectual calibre. About this there can be no dispute. However, a good lesson does not necessarily stand or fall with the use of, or failure to use, blackboards, dramatizations, flash cards, mimeographed materials, newspaper cartoons, socialized recitations, laboratory methods, or any other of the innumerable techniques or patent medicines of pedagogy. There are many kinds of good lessons employing numerous procedures in varying degrees. The fact that a given supervisor would have taught a particular lesson differently

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is no necessary indictment of the teacher's method. A half dozen teachers or supervisors picked at random might actually decide that both approaches were equally good, or that the teacher's had greater merit than the supervisor's. The supervisor must therefore be prepared to observe widely-differing lessons among his teachers which different critics would evaluate differently. There is no basis for a monistic approach. *Beyond insisting upon certain standards of scholarship, discipline, and administrative routine, the supervisor must not identify truth and excellence with his own beliefs and techniques.* He must not substitute his own values or conceptions of art for those of his teachers; he must not lay down specific techniques and procedures which teachers must use. This is where the art of teaching and the personality of the teacher fit into the picture. Any experienced teacher who has served under different chairmen over a long period of time will generally confirm the statement that the ratings given him have differed widely. Some chairmen have regarded him as an excellent teacher; others as barely satisfactory.

(3) *The supervisor must develop greater tolerance toward unorthodox teaching techniques.* We make no plea or justification for poor teaching, but we do question much of what passes for received pedagogy.

We believe that the entire question of motivation can stand a careful re-examination. Although we are aware that the concept was developed as a technique for mass education, it is our opinion that the pendulum has swung too far in its present direction. Educators have made a fetish of it. Time was when learning was the sole responsibility of the students; they learned the hard way, or they didn't learn at all. Neither sympathy nor effort was wasted upon them. In recent years, educators have gone to the other extreme. Implicit in this stress on motivation (and pedagogy generally) is the assumption that the burden of the learning process must fall primarily upon the teacher, and that what students accomplish depends very largely upon the extent to which they can be interested and stimulated.

Aside from this general shift in emphasis which we do not regard as entirely wholesome, motivation has been too narrowly construed by many teachers and supervisors. Motivation means creating pupil interest. We do not deny that this is an important drive in learning. But we refuse to place a narrow construction upon it. Motivation is something bigger and more basic than the pedagogic shot-in-the-

arm which is administered at the beginning of a lesson, where the teacher tells a story, reads a statement or a poem, or shows a picture or a chart. The specific motivation which the supervisor looks for in his visit may never appear, but real interest may have been created in any one of a thousand ways, in previous lessons.

And again, we are not entirely convinced that pupils are always motivated by what the supervisor thinks is good motivation. Good or poor student response may be entirely independent of the supposed motivation, and the two may be causally related only in the mind of the supervisor or the teacher (*post hoc ergo propter hoc*).

Although agreeing in principle that motivation, as we understand it, cannot be lightly dismissed, we nevertheless add that there are other drives for learning, and other forces which create interest: attitudes of intellectual curiosity and the inner urge to succeed; habits of diligent application and self-discipline; a cordial pupil-teacher relationship. Teacher stimulation is just one factor in the learning process. *Excessive emphasis on motivation implicity misleads students into believing that life's tasks are forever made pleasant and palatable.*

It is difficult to say just where one draws the line between the onus of the teacher and the responsibility of the pupils. In our opinion, the calibre of the class affords the best clue to a solution of that problem. In dealing with extremely dull students, continual, specific motivation may be indispensable. Where normal students are concerned, motivation is still important, but less so. In the case of bright students, motivation becomes increasingly less important. A teacher has done a mighty poor job, indeed, if he has to motivate bright pupils anew every time the class gets together. Motivation at the beginning of each new topic should prove adequate. If something relevant occurs any time thereafter which can serve as further stimulation, it should be presented, by all means. But dutiful motivation of each lesson every day can become a very boring procedure to teacher and pupils.

To turn to another cardinal sin, *why are teachers forbidden to repeat questions and answers?* The theory that repetition will cause students to become inattentive in the first instance does not seem to be borne out by the facts. For example, radio quiz programs are among the most popular on the air. The master of ceremonies invariably repeats both questions and answers, yet the listening audiences have shown no less interest, nor any inclination to abandon

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these programs. It has been our experience that where a recitation is running smoothly, an occasional repetition of questions and answers, in identical words, or rephrased more cogently, will neither make nor mar a lesson.

Although we do not deny the pedagogic worth of illustrative material, *we often question the usefulness of bulletin board displays.* Unless they are specifically incorporated into a lesson, they generally serve no purpose; students glance at them very casually, if at all, and do not have the slightest inkling of their contents. It has also been our experience that too often bulletin boards serve primarily for showmanship, which supervisors and teachers prize as such, far beyond their pedagogic worth. We have already granted that rooms (and corridors) should be attractive, but we place no value upon attractive bulletin boards which serve no educational function.

Leading questions, questions which induce unison responses, and questions which can be answered by a single word are generally condemned. From a theoretical viewpoint, this position is not entirely defensible. If Socrates symbolizes the good teacher, it is inconsistent to praise the Socratic method and condemn leading questions at one and the same time. Anyone at all acquainted with the Platonic dialogues must be aware that the leading question is the essence of the method of inquiry which has come to be associated with the name of Socrates. From a more practical consideration, our own experience testifies to the occasional usefulness of these types of questions. They are very often suited to pupils who otherwise respond with great difficulty to any questioning; they are time-saving devices to expedite getting on to more important and more vital issues; they also serve to show very quickly how carefully the class is following the teacher's reasoning and how clearly the pupils are thinking.

Criticism of bulletin boards and motivation does not negate our extensive use of both; nor do we advocate continuous recourse to such techniques as concert recitations, leading questions, and repetition of questions and answers. Our point is that *there are very few categorical imperatives in education.* Supervisor who view these matters inflexibly are slaves to unverifiable hypotheses and questionable pedagogic traditions.

(4) In many instances, controversy over a lesson may in reality be difference of opinion over a point of view. Where there are numerous approaches compatible with accepted, fundamental be-

liefs, the supervisor may not reasonably demand that the teacher adopt one approach as against another. For example, in teaching economics, a supervisor may not insist upon orientating a course about the philosophy of the New Deal, the Old Deal, or any other economic philosophy. These are controversial issues within the economic arena, and they should all be presented with equal objectivity. It still remains permissible for the teacher to express his own preference, labelled as such, but this is quite different from making that veiwpoint the basic orientation of a course.

(5) *The supervisor must not set pedagogic standards so far beyond the level of teachers that the goal becomes unattainable and every lesson is a failure by comparison.* Not every pianist can be a Hoffman or a Horowitz, and every music critic who uses these top ranking masters as yardsticks has indeed gone a long way to discourage art and talent.

Practicum courses in classroom techniques particularly sin in this respect. They set up unearthly standards, and afford the ludicrous spectacle of supervisors and teachers tearing each other's lessons to shreds with great gusto and fury. Hardly anybody appears to be a good teacher or give a good lesson in the estimation of the others—a patently absurd conclusion. It would be well to remember that these prospective chairmen are developing lesson complexes which will greatly demoralize any corps of teachers they may later be called upon to supervise. We are far from convinced that the demands of the Board of Examiners are solely responsible for these pedagogic antics, as their practitioners sometimes imply.

(6) *There is no organization of a topic or lesson which, objectively considered, is superior to all others.* A teacher is frequently criticized because of specific omissions in a given lesson. This tacitly implies that only one sequence of ideas is possible—that which the supervisor has in mind. It does not always occur to the latter that the topic omitted may have been the subject of a previous lesson, or is going to be taken up in a subsequent one, and that the teacher's judgment of when to present it is on a par with his own.

(7) Where there seems to be a very wide discrepancy between the supervisor's and the teacher's conception of a good lesson, the former is very much justified in telling how he thinks a particular kind of a lesson can be improved. Indeed, it would even be desirable for him to go further and give a demonstration lesson before the same class, followed by a discussion with the teacher of the

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relative merits of the different techniques. A concrete example is worth many written criticisms.

WHAT TO LOOK FOR. We do not wish to leave the impression that supervision is unnecessary. We have already indicated the demands which the supervisor can make upon teachers in the interest of better education, and how he, in turn, can help them. We do not hold that the supervisor's right to criticize the teacher's art may be validly challenged. Our position, however, is that it is a subjective criticism, much more limited in its scope and application.

Here are some of the questions a supervisor may reasonably raise in evaluating a lesson: (1) What is the intellectual calibre of the class? Brilliant, bright, normal, dull? Some classes will respond under any circumstances; others under some circumstances; still others under very few circumstances. The teacher's art is an important factor, but not the only one, in explaining outstanding classroom lessons. (2) Does the lesson have a definite aim, and is it developed by a series of logical steps? Or, because of poor planning and inadequate preparation, is it an irregular performance and a mere recital of facts without purpose? (3) What is the teacher's questioning technique? Are the questions clear, precise, logical, thought-provoking, and at the intellectual level of his students? Or, are they vague, ambiguous and awkward, covering too much or too little? (4) What is the "tone" of the classroom? Is the atmosphere natural, or strained and tense? Does the teacher control the class, or does the class control the teacher? Does he create discipline problems by his ineptness and mismanagement? Does he live and practice classroom democracy, or is he an autocrat who mouths the words but plays the role of a petty despot? (5) How does the teacher get along with his students? Do they look forward to his period with eagerness and enthusiasm, or do they grudgingly come or cut class? Do the students evidence an interest in the lesson at hand? Do they participate, or are they indifferent and uninterested? Does the teacher retain the respect of the class, or is he cordially disliked? Although difficult for a chairman to ascertain, and although there are many reasons other than good teaching to account for teacher popularity, *the attitudes displayed by pupils to their teacher are very often as valuable an index of a teacher's ability and usefulness as a chairman's appraisal based exclusively upon a few casual visits.*

(6) Finally, although difficult to determine, it is not unfair for supervisors to weigh the permanent influence of the teacher upon his student body. How much over and above the facts of the lesson do students cumulatively carry away? Does he stimulate their imagination, sharpen their critical faculties, inspire them with a zeal for learning and a desire to search for truth? What attitudes do they develop toward their fellow students in school? Does the teacher make education a collective search for better ways of applying American ideals of fair play, democracy, and tolerance in living with their fellow men in society, or is he concerned with propaganda and indoctrination of one kind or another, or with newspaper headlines of the moment?

These are some aspects of a teacher's art which the supervisor must seek out to praise, criticize, or discuss with his teachers. Too often in the past, supervisors have been more interested in the *how* of a lesson than the *what,* or the consequences upon character and mind. They might well ponder Albert Einstein's statement before the *Conference on Science and World Order,* in 1941: *"Perfection of means and confusion of aims, seems, in my opinion, to characterize our age."*

The Observation Report

CONFLICTING VIEWPOINTS. There are many good reasons for maintaining that observation of classroom procedure by a supervisor is highly desirable under any educational system. But there does seem to be a difference of opinion regarding the nature of the report which the supervisor should make after his visit. There are two views on the matter, not incompatible. One holds that the observation report is an aid to better teaching; the other, that it is fundamentally an evaluation of the teacher's fitness to maintain his position. Supervisors, generally, are inclined to the former, and teachers to the latter point of view.

While it cannot be disputed that an observation report contains valuable suggestions for improvement of teaching, this seems incidental rather than fundamental. *Any permanent pedagogic value resulting from the supervisor's visit to the teacher will come from the personal conference between supervisor and teacher which precedes the written report.* It is doubtful whether the latter adds anything to the knowledge and understanding of the teacher's weak-

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nesses and shortcomings. At best it serves as a summary of the discussion.

We therefore regard it as more valid to view the report as an estimate of the teacher's fitness to remain in service. Further support is given to this theory by the action of the principal and the chairman in filing copies of all such reports in each teacher's school folder for use in any issue which may arise concerning the teacher's general character, ability and general qualifications.

Teachers also depend upon the file of cumulative reports for promotions to higher licenses, success in securing transfers, evaluations by new supervisors, and finally, their own peace of mind. Fair observation reports therefore constitute one of their most important needs.

CRITERIA OF OBSERVATION REPORTS. As classroom teachers, we wish to set forth a number of principles which, in our opinion, should be the basis of observation reports.

(1) *The report should present an integrated picture of what goes on in the classroom, rather than an anatomical dissection or an elaboration of a few points.* A lesson is more than the sum of its parts, and where it is minutely dissected, justice cannot possibly be done to the teacher.

(2) Even as chairmen want to be evaluated by comparison with the average run of supervisors, and not by reference to a Platonic prototype, so, too, the judgment which the supervisor ultimately places upon a teacher and a lesson should be based upon similar standards. The chairman should ask himself, "How does the overall picture of this lesson compare with the average lesson I have observed over a long period of time?" He should *not* say, "By *my* standards of a good lesson, how should I rate this lesson?" Both approaches, as we have already indicated, are very subjective, and differ from chairman to chairman. The former, however, shows an awareness of what is involved; the latter does not.

(3) Although most lessons are at best "uncut gems," and not highly polished to the last detail, many are well organized and equally-well presented. In spite of this, most supervisors seem bent on incorporating adverse criticism in their reports, even if it means magnifying insignificant details, far out of proportion to their importance. We are not averse to helpful suggestions, but we wonder why observation reports *must* contain adverse criticism.

(4) *Long detailed reports whose chief purpose seems that of inflating the supervisor's ego at the expense of the teacher cannot be educationally justified.* There are other ways for supervisors to give evidence of genuine scholarship, intellectual superiority, and leadership which are compatible with the dignity and personality of their teachers. A number of basic criticisms and suggestions which would improve the teacher's techniques and enhance the interest, understanding, and learning of the students are very much in order. Long harangues on trivial details, pseudo-learned monographs on psychology and pedagogy, bibliographies, and quotations from textbooks can well be omitted.

Comments made elsewhere on the functions of the music critic are equally applicable to the supervisor: *". . . the critic does have certain obligations to the artist—the obligation to bring an unprejudiced and receptive mind to the artist's work, to keep that mind entirely on that work, and to report honestly what it finds there; the obligation, in other words, to write a criticism of the work, not to misuse it and misrepresent it in an exhibition of the critic's own cleverness, his wit, his learning, his pet ideas, his amusing style. . . ."* *

(5) Punitive reports should be strictly forbidden. It is unprofessional, unsportsmanlike, and unworthy of any supervisor to use reports and ratings as a weapon to settle other accounts or to make teachers conform to ideas and viewpoints.

Summary

To sum up, briefly, we have attempted to distinguish between the "science" of education and the art of teaching, and to indicate that, while, as an administrator, the powers of the supervisor are relatively plenary, as a critic of the teacher's classroom performance, his functions are limited. He must temper his convictions with doubt because he has entered a subjective realm where tastes, temperaments, and art criticism differ vastly from teacher to teacher, and supervisor to supervisor.

What makes a good teacher? Briefly, personality, scholarship and intellect, and pedagogy, in the order named. The unique combination of these elements in each teacher constitutes the artist.

What makes a good supervisor? We would say: one who has

* B. H. Haggin, *The Nation*, September 2, 1944, p. 277.

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integrity and courage, respects the personality of the teacher as a fellow-artist and human being, has an open mind regarding his own and his teachers' viewpoints, smooths off the rough edges of their techniques and methods, and does not expect pedagogy alone to bring on the new social order.

What makes a good lesson? If the teacher's scholarship is sound, if the material covered falls within the course of study (broadly construed), if the lesson unfolds logically towards a specific objective, if the students follow the questioning of the teacher and respond with interest and enthusiasm, the lesson is fundamentally a success and the teacher has done his job well as a creative artist.

Our concluding thought is that supervisors should show far greater philosophic humility in dealing with the entire problem. As one of our contemporary social thinkers has admirably declared, *"The way of rational understanding as well as the way of genuine piety is to begin with the more humble recognition that each one of us is but a small part of the world and not its entire creator. We are truly creative in the human arts only to the extent that we recognize our limitations as well as the limitations of our material."* *

* M. R. Cohen, *Reason and Nature*, p. 65.

Films Can Fight for Democracy

CHAS. G. SPIEGLER* and ESTHER L. BERG†

When the shooting war was ended on V-J Day, hundreds of thousands of American soldiers stepped out of their foxholes, their job well done, made ready for their return home and for the better life in a world at peace, for which they had fought. For them, war was over.

When the shooting war was ended, there were hundreds of thousands of other American "soldiers" who had also lived for years in a different kind of foxhole, a classroom, who were making no plans for leaving. These were the American teachers. These were "digging in" for the battles ahead, for the struggle yet to be made for

* Seward Park High School.
† Assigned to Keying Audio-Visual Aids to Curriculum, Board of Education.

National and International Unity, for better human relations, for true democracy. For teachers, a "war" was just beginning.

In an atomic age, it is of the essence that teachers help win this war against those forces which are seeking to split peoples and nations asunder. The world has been adequately warned of what will happen if we lose. And, just as soldiers in the field made use of every new military weapon with which to destroy the enemy, so must we as teachers make use of every new teaching instrument and device if we would successfully smother the dangerous whispers which may grow into the formidable shouts we heard so loudly once before: "Democracy Can't Work," "War Is Inevitable," etc.

One such effective device which gave brilliant proof of its potency during the war was the educational motion picture. It can now, in Post war, be used equally as effectively as an antidote for the poison gas of disunity which the Fascist enemy has left us as his heritage.

Recently at a meeting of the New York Society for the Experimental Study of Education, about 350 teachers saw a demonstration conducted by three experts* in the use of this instrument, and learned from them how a film can be employed to "hammer home" the underlying principle of democracy.

DEMOCRACY IN ACTION. "The Cummington Story," an O.W.I. documentary film, does this most admirably. It tells the story of Cummington's young minister who, himself sensitive to the sufferings in a war-torn world, seeks to persuade his rather conservative, provincial congregation that it ought to welcome a few refugees. If, after having escaped to America, they find difficulty in starting life anew in a strange land, the minister asserts, would they not be most grateful for a chance to work out their future in the temporary security which Cummington can afford? Somewhat reluctantly the refugees are permitted to come to Cummington. When the eleven penniless refugees finally arrive, the reluctance to accept them deepens. The villagers have grown doubtful of the wisdom of their decision. "How would people with foreign ways, city people, people without money fit into a poor farming community? Thus, at first the strangers see little warmth and kindness in the rugged New

* Dr. V. C. Arnspiger, Executive Vice-President Encyclopedia Britannica Films Inc.; Julien H. Bryan, Executive Director, International Film Foundation Inc.; Helen Grayson, Director, O. W. I. Documentary Films.

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England faces they meet on street, in store, in church. Gradually, however, as the refugees demonstrate their sincere desire to "chip in" and help because of the war emergencies,—whether it be in the mowing of lawns, the making of saw handles or lampshades, or in the running of a farm,—they are accepted into the community in the American tradition. The best proof that Cummington means this sincerely comes when one of the refugees, enters the General Store, is invited to sit around the stove, whittle a piece of wood and gossip with the towns folk. He had arrived!

IT CAN WORK. Can the teacher use this film in the teaching of democracy? Miss Helen Grayson who produced it answered the question as follows:

"Yes! Teachers can put a lot of punch into "The Cummington Story." For example, might not a teacher use the film to show that the abstract religious idea of the brotherhood of man can operate in simple and helpful human terms? Then, remember the Town Meeting that the villagers hold? Might not students in a class on Civics or Government be made to feel the significance of the Town Meeting, of free speech, especially in the person of the refugee from totalarianism who can participate in an American Town Meeting and live the democracy heretofore denied him? . . . These lessons can be taught, but only if their significance can be fully revealed by the teacher. In the classroom, the teacher is indispensable to the documentary film and I hope that teachers are beginning to feel that documentaries are indispensable to them."

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS. How indispensable the documentary film for international relations can become to the alert teacher was discussed in some detail by Julien Bryan, who has for many years been identified with the production of films, which have as their motif, the building of "One World." As he has said, *"We believe that the documentary film can do a specific job in international relations. When we see on the screen a true portrayal of the life of a typical South American family—with so many similarities to our own daily life—we begin to think of them as our friends. And when we send pictures of plain, ordinary American families living, working, playing together, we believe we are creating better friendships for the United States throughout the world."*

He demonstrated this by showing us a film entitled "The County

Agent," one of the Ohio series, produced with a Spanish commentary for the purpose of acquainting our Southern neighbors with our democratic way of life and in order to counteract Hollywood, which has given the average person in South America the conception that we are either multi-millionaires, cowboys, or gangsters. In using these documentaries, it is important that the teacher realize the implications inherent in the film; the teacher must delve into the picture and enlarge its meaning; the learnings are implied and not underlined.

THE CLASSROOM FILM. The two films, we have just discussed may be considered problem-centered films* as distinguished from the subject-centered films which are made to fit into the current curriculum pattern, and which present material directly related to chapters or units within the present course of study. How the subject-centered film (generally known as the classroom film) can help teach democracy, by becoming the springboard for discussion in the classroom, was the theme which Dr. V. C. Arnspiger developed. *"The Encyclopedia Britannica films are trying to sharpen up the tools with which people study democracy,"* he said and illustrated the point in the showing of two films, *Democracy* and *Despotism*, produced for use in the Junior and Senior High School Social Studies classes.

DEMOCRACY AND DESPOTISM. One of the most difficult problems a teacher of Social Studies meets is in clarifying certain concepts of government. The films contribute to a solution of this problem by attempting to develop clearer definitions of democracy and despotism built upon terms of specific reference. Four major factors are selected for definition and illustration. These are 1) the characteristic factors of a democracy—"Shared Respect" and "Shared Power" 2) the conditional factors in a democracy—"Economic Balance" and "Enlightment."

The films point out that Democracy is characterized by a greater sharing of Respect and Power; that Despotism is characterized by a greater restriction of Respect and a Concentration of Power; that if there is economic balance and enlightened information, Democracy stands a good chance of winning; that where we have economic

*Terms employed by Dr. Edgar Dale in his News Letter of January, 1946.

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imbalance and controlled or limited information, Despotism will flourish.

As one teacher commenting on the film during the discussion period said, *"Democracy and Despotism were fascinating and provocative films. The charts, the scales, the stirring scenes, and the people helped make vivid, clear and concrete for me, many ideas which up to now I had only felt and understood vaguely."*

Another teacher introduced for the first time to the truth that films can fight for democracy, was so moved by what she had learned, she rose to say *"This was really wonderful! I think we need more films which will arouse keener enthusiasm for our way of life and develop in our students a fervent desire to retain it."*

It was on this high note of enthusiastic interest, shared by the entire group, that Dr. Whalen closed the meeting by expressing the hope that more teachers would see the increasingly significant role the film can play in developing more wholesome democratic attitudes.

High Points

THE ANTIQUARIAN'S CORNER

Some teachers have achieved fame for work done outside of their regular academic interests. In fact, the public may not generally know that these men were also teachers. A. E. Housman was a professor of Greek and Latin; Lewis Carroll taught mathematics; Stephen Leacock was a professor of political economy.

The name of another teacher has been perpetuated because from it was added a word new to the English language. William Archibald Spooner was a distinguished teacher at New College Oxford. He was actively connected with the college from 1862 to 1924. During his long academic career, he was a scholarship student, tutor, fellow, dean, and warden (president). He was an outstanding lecturer in divinity, history, and philosophy. He wrote biographies and edited the texts of Latin authors. He was ordained a deacon in 1872 and a priest in 1875.

Yet he is known to the world at large for none of his achievements in scholastic or civic life, which cover almost a full page of the *Dictionary of National Biography*, (Oxford, 1937). His biographer, P. E. Matheson, devotes only a sentence to the reason for his fame:

'A tendency to lapse of speech led to the association of his name with one form of slip which gave a new word, 'spoonerism,' *to the English language . . . but this had no relation to his general conversation, which was affluent, vigorous, often witty, and was enjoyed by all who shared it."*

The Spooner legend began with the story about the hymn, *Conquering Kings Their Titles Take.* He fumbled the lines when he called upon the students to sing, *Tinkering Tongs Their Kitles Kake.* This was speedily corrected to, *Kingering Kongs Their Titles Take,* and the legend was born.

The legend was perpetuated by the students who began to think up new ones, which naturally were attributed to the Reverend Spooner. It is further reported that Benjamin Jowett, master of Balliol, helped when the students' inventive genius ran dry.

The "twongue-tisters" were called spoonerisms on the Oxford grounds as early as 1885 and the word "spoonerism" was admitted to the Oxford English Dictionary as of 1900.

Among the classics attributed to Dr. Spooner were: *"striking a blushing crow for a cause"; "riding on a well-boiled icicle";* writing as a criticism of a student's composition that it contained *"too many prowlers in his hose";* taking *"two bugs and a rag on train journeys";* asking, *"Is the Bean dizzy?"* when calling on the Dean of Christ Church; describing a friend's purchase of a "nosey little cook"; referring to Queen Victoria as *"a queer old dean";* going to town on the *"town drain."*

As the legend grew, the spoonerisms became richer and more complicated. It was alleged that Dr. Spooner had uttered gems like this: *"We all know what it is to have a half-warmed fish within us."* After a long walk he is supposed to have said, *"I must have walked quite ten miles as the fly crows."* When students were inattentive, he averred that he was tired of addressing *"beery wenches."* When he saw someone else in his pew he uttered the classic, *"Are you aware, sir, that you are occupewing my pie?"*

If Spooner really was responsible for a fraction of the sayings credited to him, and were he alive today, he could easily qualify as a gag-writer. The gag-writers are still using some of the examples quoted, especially the last one given. By a process known to the profession as switching, they bring it up to date. Here's one of its many variants.

"A very beautiful girl enters a crowded church. The usher is

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handsome, too, and all a-flutter she asks, 'Are all the pies occupewed?' Equally flustered, the usher answers, 'Not at all, come with me, and I'll sew you to a sheet'."

According to the *New English Dictionary*, a spoonerism is *"an accidental transposition of the initial sounds or other parts of two or more words."* Some writers on humor call it a metathesis, but that is not strictly true since a metathesis is the name given to a linguistic phenomenon, the transposition of letters within one word (*e.g., third* coming from *thridda*).

Spoonerisms are here to stay. There is the unconscious kind committed because of nervousness or tenseness, especially over the air almost daily. There are the coined ones, some of which are very clever but which seem forced like, *"Hush that brat; it's roaring with pain outside."* There are the variations on the classics like, *"It's kisstomary to cuss the bride."*

Finally there is the degradation of the art. According to the dictionary, the spoonerism must be accidental. What can be done with a writer who gets about half a page in a very widely-circulated magazine to pile one horror on other? He calls them modern spoonerisms but they are not true specimens of the art. *"An averbiated breezion of the chee-seeding prapter,"* etc., *ad nauseam*, is a fair example. In a really clever spoonerism, the twisted phrase usually consists of real words with a punning quality as in the story of the candidate who addressed the miners as, *"Noble tons of soil."*

P.S. He didn't get their vote.

MORRIS ROSENBLUM Samuel J. Tilden High School

THE TEACHING OF CONTROVERSIAL SUBJECTS

In the teaching of controversial subjects we should be fully cognizant of a common objective in science, English, and social studies teaching: to prepare youth for competent citizenship. These subjects should make for a better understanding of the world in which we live. They should engender reflective thinking; they should encourage the development of desirable attitudes conducive to good citizenship.

SCIENTIFIC METHOD. The scientific method should be employed, whenever possible, in the teaching of controversial subjects.

Now, what is the essence of the scientific method? The formulation of hypotheses, meticulous observations, careful recording of data, skill in reporting, research findings, controlled evidence, contacts with laboratory materials and procedures, and the derivation of laws are part and parcel of the scientific method.

APPLIED TO SOCIAL STUDIES. To be sure, the social studies procedures must differ or depart from the truly scientific. The social studies class must examine significant actions of mankind, whether they be rational or irrational. It must inquire into motives of human behavior, examining the selfish and the unselfish, the practical and the idealistic, the emotional and the rational. It must concern itself with "ways of life"—economic, social, political, spiritual. It must analyze and appraise the aspirations and actions of groups in society. And, with respect to all of these, it must indicate *ethical* values.

Science deals with "controlled" evidence. The social studies class is faced with controlled and uncontrolled evidence. Hence, the problem of controversial subject teaching is difficult. We cannot begin and end our discussions with screaming headlines or even with thoughtful editorials. We must employ the historical and scientific method of *development*. In the words of James Harvey Robinson: *"I venture to think that if certain seemingly indisputable historical facts were generally known and accepted and permitted to play a daily part in our thought, the world would forthwith become a very different place from what it is now. We could then neither delude ourselves in the simple-minded way we now do, nor could we take advantage of the primitive ignorance of others. All our discussions of social, industrial and political reform would be raised to a higher plane of insight and fruitfulness."* *

Human affairs are far more intricate than atoms and chromosomes. But this is only the more reason for the teacher of controversial subjects to bring to bear on human affairs as much as possible of that critical type of thought that science employs in the laboratory and classroom.

Do our students know the axioms and postulates and hypotheses involved in problems of a controversial nature? For example, in the discussion of an economic question, does the student know of Marxian postulates and Henry Georgian axioms, as well as Ricardian sup-

* From *The Mind In The Making*, page 6.

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positions conventionally outlined in his textbook on economics? Before a student ventures to characterize Churchill as a hypocrite, is he familiar with Tory principles of economics and politics, and with the public career of Churchill, as a point of departure for evaluating his addresses?

Do we have our students seek the facts? Do our students examine the raw material—original source material, historical antecedents, etc.? Do we urge our pupils to analyze, to discriminate, to apply the principles of historical-mindedness?

Is there an attitude of judicial calm and an appeal to reason in the process of studying a controversial question? Is every significant viewpoint presented, even to the extent that the teacher becomes the devil's disciple in presenting an important viewpoint that is not forthcoming from the class? Is there an analysis of propaganda? Is there a critical study of source and secondary material? These and similar questions are of prime importance in the application of the scientific method to controversial problems.

MORRIS COHEN — High School of Science

The Pedagogue Returns

With my new suit, my shiny discharge pin,
I step inside the strong, familiar door
Where planes are posters on a wall, and in
The six, neat rows, no different from before,
My pupils poise their pens. Now I must stalk
Beyond the reaches of curriculum
To write on memories with more than chalk
That men have died; for if the world become
As narrow as a blackboard and as bare,
Then what price French or algebra? Too late
In twenty years, in twenty days, to tear
My lesson plans when Dunkirk is a date,
Salerno is a quaint, Italian town
And Nagasaki just a proper noun.

SIMPSON SASSERATH — Murray Hill Vocational High School

UNO IN AN ENGLISH CLASS

We have just completed what we feel was a very successful unit on the United Nations, one that involved every phase of English teaching. Following the suggestion of the Superintendent of Schools that time be devoted to a consideration of the United Nations Organization, and after a department conference on the subject, this unit was started. Worked on with fifth term English classes, it was planned and carried out with the close cooperation of the social studies teacher on the grade.

The unit was introduced in the English classroom by a discussion of a selection from Pearl Buck in which she emphasized the importance of different people's knowing and understanding one another. The excerpt may be found on page 26 of *English for Victory*, a publication of the New York City Association of Teachers of English. At the same time in the social studies rooms the aims, ideals, and problems of the United Nations were being considered.

SELECTING A COUNTRY FOR INDIVIDUAL STUDY. These lessons led up to the selection by each student of one of the United Nations with which he felt he would like to become better acquainted. The selection was made after the pupil had talked over his choice with both his English and Social Studies teachers.

USING THE LIBRARY. The next step was individual research on the country chosen. To help these immature pupils use the resources of the library, lessons were given on the finding and use of reference materials. The services of the school librarian were enlisted to teach the card catalog, encyclopedias, biographical dictionaries, the Reader's Guide to Periodical Literature, the newspaper file. However, students were encouraged to get materials from various sources, including family and friends.

ORAL AND WRITTEN EXPRESSION. The first assignment given was the preparation of a talk on the topic, "Introducing the Country I have Chosen for Study." Students were encouraged to enliven these talks with illustrative material, and since ours is an art school, the results were very interesting. For subsequent talks and compositions there was a wide variety of topics, such as: A Noted Painter—Sculptor—Writer—Musician—Dancer—Statesman of_____; How the Teen Ager in_____Spends His Leisure

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Time; A Motion Picture-Play-Radio Program-Record That Gave a Good Picture of.....; What I Have Learned from my Study of..... Letter writing was taught as the pupils asked questions about letters they were writing to secure information on their countries.

Although it was not compulsory, students were encouraged to keep a record of words added to their vocabularies as a result of their study and reading.

Since a primary aim of this unit was to share experiences and information and thus broaden each pupil's outlook, much oral work and interchange of material was encouraged throughout the unit.

READING. The reading during this unit was extremely varied, both in the choice of titles and the types of literature read, each student selecting books dealing with the country of which he was making a study. In the very informal reports it was suggested that the reporters emphasize what they had learned about the people, the background, the customs, the literature of the nation; and at the same time show in how many respects the people of that nation were similar to Americans. In class discussions we tried to point out that people are fundamentally the same the world over. For this reading the following bibliography was found helpful:

English for Victory pp. 93-101

Books for Young People—Branch Library News Vol. 22, No. 1, Jan. 1945, pp. 3-5, 10-15

MAKING OF SCRAPBOOKS. As the pupils began to accumulate material, their natural reaction was to want to keep it in some permanent form, and so scrapbooks were decided upon. Into these went compositions, special reports, newspaper and magazine clippings, and a great variety of original and personal material. There were original illustrations, sketches, and cartoons; newspaper and magazine clippings of all kinds; photographs secured from service men, friends, and family albums; coin and stamp collections; samples of handiwork; souvenirs; and even costumed dolls attached by string to scrapbooks. The enthusiasm shown in the making of these booklets was really genuine. Some hitherto lethargic students seemed to come to life. An important contributing factor to this enthusiasm was that the pupils' shop work was brought directly into the English classroom. For example, two boys who had seemed very indifferent asked if they might make a joint project of a country

in which they were interested, Mexico. When encouraged to do so, they haunted the library and finally produced a voluminous, profusely illustrated scrapbook, covering the history of the country, the people, costumes, customs, handiwork, etc.

VISUAL AND AUDITORY AIDS. Since all of us, young and old, like the praise and admiration of our peers, the most interesting of the compositions, clippings, sketches, etc., were placed on classroom bulletin boards, with frequent changes in material exhibited. In fact, there was such an abundance of exhibit material that additional bulletin board space was improvised by pasting large sheets of mounting paper on to blackboards and moldings.

During this unit, every Thursday was "movie" day, a sound film on one of the United Nations being shown with class discussion following the presentation.

The entire unit was summarized by a series of class programs. On China Day, for example, the students who had chosen that country exhibited their scrapbooks and other material, and spoke about some phase that they thought particularly worthwhile, interesting or entertaining. Each class selected the scrapbooks they considered the best, and these were circulated among all the classes and then left on exhibit in the classroom. Some of the scrapbooks completed during this unit were showpieces; some had a great deal of information between the covers; and others were very nondescript; but all showed that thought had gone into their making.

In order to tie the various aspects of the unit together, and to bring back the students to the original thesis, the absolute need for a true world democracy and a strong United Nations, the last few periods were spent listening to Norman Corwin's stirring recording, *On a Note of Triumph*.

It was felt that the above unit was really worthwhile because it integrated the work of the English and social studies departments, and because it stimulated so much real pupil interest and activity—and thus, resulted in real learning.

BERNICE W. EINSTEIN School of Industrial Art

JUNIOR RED CROSS AND OUR CITY SCHOOLS

What is Junior Red Cross? It is the American Red Cross in the schools—public, independent, and religious. What does it do? It

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makes a backrest for a soldier in a veteran's hospital. It sends a gift to an English girl whose parents were killed by a robot bomb. It buys shoes for a Polish child, whose home was burned. It exchanges correspondence albums and letter booklets with schools of other lands. It participates in the community Red Cross program. It trains through service. The foundation of the Junior Red Cross always has been "training for citizenship through service now."

A CONTINUING NEED. We in the Junior Red Cross have a very real place in building a better world. About a million members in New York City schools are expressing their sense of responsibility toward others by contributing to the Junior Red Cross and National Children's Fund. Money is used to provide medical chests for children overseas. Educational supplies, shoes, and dried milk are also being sent to children in war-devastated nations. The need continues.

Filling gift boxes for school students of other nations is another project that surmounts barriers of language and distance. Members in New York City schools have already packed 9,000 gift boxes this year with school supplies, toys, and health supplies such as soap, washcloths, and toothpaste. Last year classrooms throughout our country filled 500,000 such boxes. All this is in addition to the tremendous Junior Red Cross program of national and local service.

It is not necessary to build a case for Junior Red Cross. The case has been provided by those who have suffered—who bathed the world in blood. What about children in Europe and Asia? What about Norway, Poland, Greece, the Philippines and other war-torn countries? Do we need to provide a case for children whose eyes have seen so much stark tragedy? Working for Junior Red Cross is not charity. It is an investment in national and international well-being. We enter into this job with thanksgiving for the privilege that we, as Americans, have been spared the devastating horrors of war.

DON'T LEAVE IT TO GEORGE! Yes, the war has ended, but its end will not permit us to relax our efforts in the war against human suffering—local, national, or international. We cannot permit ourselves to "leave it to George" or "Harvey." Every one knows George. He is the fellow we hope will do everything we let slide. Harvey—isn't there!

SERVICE. It is the proud tradition of our country to help those in need. We cannot enjoy our abundance if we believe that through our failure to share—people suffer. The Junior Red Cross is founded on the principle of service—to community, nation, and to children abroad. The 4,000 Christmas Gift Boxes New York City students packed made the first peacetime Christmas many European and Asiatic children have *ever* known—a happy one. The destruction of teachers, schools, books, school equipment, and school medical supplies of invaded nations was a planned, routine Fascist procedure. Thousands of additional Junior Red Cross gift boxes of educational supplies and large medical chests are needed. This means more than doing something nice for underprivileged children. This is a way of rebuilding faith among the liberated youth and their teachers—for reviving confidence, for uniting the new generations.

Friction, conflict, tension in a family can wreck it. The same thing is true of a community or a nation. Important as food and shelter are, this third problem of human relationships is even more crucial. Junior Red Cross, to which children belong without regard to race, color, or religion and which serves all alike, here and abroad, assists the schools in a program of understanding and friendship. Schools are responsible for making good Americans of all. The Junior Red Cross places itself on the side of the schools and against all forms of fear, prejudice, and hatred.

"FOR WHOM THE BELL TOLLS." Junior Red Cross service helps the schools teach that the entire sphere of human relations lies in *imaginative sympathy*. "What happens to another happens to oneself." We want human relations to be governed less by hate and selfishness or by force and fraud, and more by mutual love, mutual help and common well-being.

As Superintendent John E. Wade recently pointed out at a school superintendents' convention, "*Schools too often fail to take advantage of youth's enthusiasm for public service. No better means for the development of dynamic citizenship is available than actual community service, experienced by pupils working under the joint supervision of teachers and recognized community agencies.*"

KNOWLEDGE AND ATTITUDE. We in Junior Red Cross recognize the fact that knowledge is not enough. Indeed, a knowledge of mathematics may be used to swindle widows; a knowledge of

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science may be used to murder one's wife or, in this atomic age, a whole nation; a knowledge of political science may be used to set up a dictatorship; a knowledge of psychology may be used to betray a friend. Yes, one may be able to answer all the trick questions on Quiz programs and yet be wicked. The most effectively wicked people are the smart men—selfishness and greed become powerful forces in the hands only of smart men. So Junior Red Cross helps teachers to develop persons who are sensitive to the disparities of humans and to develop citizens who are willing to act. It is not only "what you know"; it is how you use what you know that is important. The value of any citizen to society is determined by how he uses his ability—whether for his own interests or for the good of society.

We like to think of God as a landlord, and we as his tenants. He owns the earth and we occupy it. We can't buy the space we take up, no matter how much money we may have. But we can and do rent it. The rent is paid in the service we render.

CHARLES S. JOHNSON — Director, Junior Red Cross for Greater New York

WIDE READING VS. INTENSIVE DRILL

A recent article in *High Points** contrasts two methods of approaching the problem of remedial reading on the high school level, the first stressing intensive exercise and drill on reading skills, and the second extensive reading. The results obtained using each technique with matched groups of retarded readers were compared with the progress noted in a "regular" English class, in which there was neither direct teaching of reading skills nor any unusual emphasis on wide reading.

While the attempt of any teacher to use his classroom as a vehicle for educational research is praiseworthy, and should be encouraged, the results obtained are subject to so many errors that it appears to be worthwhile to comment upon some of the major inadequacies noted.

* Murray A. Goldberg: "Can Reading Ability Be Improved More Effectively Through Wide Reading or Intensive Drill?" *High Points*, Feb. 1946, pp. 21-27.

THE EXPERIMENTAL APPROACH. The study in question utilizes the usual technique of abstracting from the classes used matched sub-groups (in this case, eighteen students were chosen from each of the three classes), and of measuring initial and final status on equivalent forms of the same test (the Nelson Denny Reading Tests, Vocabulary and Paragraph).

The bases upon which the three groups were selected leaves much to be desired. While the eighteen students were matched for age and IQ, no attempt was made to secure equivalence in initial reading status. Thus, the average scores of the Drill, Reading, and Control groups in Paragraph Comprehension were 15.78, 18.22, and 23.56, respectively. Equally large differences were noted in Total Reading scores, where the status of the groups is shown by average scores of 26.94, 28.22, and 34.72. It should be noted that this failure to equate the three groups in what constitutes the major experimental factor under consideration invalidates the entire treatment of relative improvement and casts doubt upon the resulting implications for classroom practice advanced by the study.

The choice of the test used as a means of measuring initial status and progress of the groups is also questionable. The Nelson-Denny Reading Test is ordinarily considered much too difficult for a group of retarded readers, particularly in the lower grades of the high school. As a result, the test is not an adequate measure of the ability of the below average student. In the study described, even the Control group, composed in large part of average students in terms of IQ, and presumably, in terms of reading ability as well, tests below the ninth grade norms not only at the beginning, but at the end of the experimental term.

THE RESULTS. The results are interpreted to indicate that extensive reading is more effective than intensive drill in improving vocabulary. As a matter of fact, this apparently greater effectiveness of the wide reading approach may be attributed to inadequate statistical treatment of the data. While it is true that a difference of 2.77 points does appear in group results, when this difference is analyzed for *statistical* significance, it is clear that the results obtained cannot be considered a clear proof of the relative superiority of one method or the other. Indeed, when the obtained results (in either of the two aspects of reading measured, or in total reading score) are adequately analyzed, in no case is a statistically significant

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difference in improvement found. In large part, such differences as do appear may be considered artifacts of the testing situation.

One final point—it is unfortunate that no attempt was made to determine what type of student made the greater progress with each method. Inspection of the individual data given creates a strong impression that, with both experimental techniques, the poorer student makes the greater gain, a tendency which does not appear quite so marked in the Control group.

SUMMARY. The reported study may be criticized on three major grounds: (1) incomplete equivalence of groups; (2) poor choice of testing instrument; and (3) inadequate statistical treatment. A more refined organization and treatment in any subsequent approach to the problem, using the classroom as a laboratory, would be extremely valuable. It would be interesting, too, to compare the relative effectiveness of a combination of techniques with the application of intensive drill or extensive reading used alone.

JOSEPH JUSTMAN

School of Education College
of the City of New York

THE CRMD UNIT IN A FOUR TRACK SCHOOL

Miss Anna E. Lawson, Principal of Junior High 81, Manhattan has planned and organized a four track school which is run on a definite philosophy that has been developed to meet the needs of its pupils. This plan observes the basic considerations in the Program of Elementary Education. (See *Changing Concepts and Practices in Elementary Education,* pp. 7, 8). It is developed to meet the variations in the type of pupils.

The plan consists of four major tracks. These are:

1. The Regular or Normal Track
2. The Adjustment Track
3. The CRMD-Adjustment Track
4. The CRMD Track

The ultimate purpose is to get each of the 1400 girls on the track where she will progress to the best advantage. A pupil can be transferred from one track to another after her case has been properly diagnosed.

The CRMD and CRMD—Adjustment Tracks

General Plan

In September 1944 a CRMD unit was begun. This consists of four CRMD—Adjustment Classes and the four CRMD Classes. By the creation of such a unit greater homogeneity was gained. A class register of 22 made provision for growth in self-realization. Pupils were placed in the unit after careful screening. These classes are not the dumping ground for every educational misfit in the school. A program was then begun to improve the instruction of slow-learning pupils.

The general plan and program for these two tracks, CRMD and CRMD-Adjustment, is identical and so they were placed under one chairman.

Dr. Richard H. Hungerford, Director, together with the Curriculum Committee of Bureau CRMD, developed a program or course of study which endeavors to train children in social, occupational, and academic skills. The chief emphasis is realistic guidance and training for low-level jobs. This course of study in occupational education is training for total living.

Curriculum

"To provide a schooling that is challenging and helpful rather than the mere emasculation of a 'normal' program."

The curricular cores for this adolescent group are:

A Study of Job Areas for C.A. 13
Choosing, Holding, and Getting a Job for C.A. 14
Spending Your Income Wisely for C.A. 15
The Worker as a Citizen and Social Being for C.A. 16 and 17

The training in these curriculum areas definitely meets the needs of these children.

Aims

The primary aims are:

Moral and Ethical Development
Physical Growth and Development
Emotional and Social Competence
Vocational Direction
Intellectual Competence

Since our aim is to train girls to meet the demands of a complex society, not one of these can be omitted.

Organization

As has been stated, this unit consists of four CRMD Classes and

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four CRMD-Adjustment Classes. The main difference is in the admission requirements for acceptance into these classes.

Criteria for Admission to CRMD-Adjustment

C. A. 13-16 (includes children who will be 13 during the current term)

I. Q. under 80-group test
under 85-individual test
(all candidates must take the Pintner General Ability Test, Intermediate Form, before placement)

R. G. under 5.0 (all candidates must take the Standford Achievement Test Intermediate Form before being recommended for placement)

E. S. no gross emotional instability (a candidate whose problem is emotional rather than mental is not recommended for placement; school records and California Test of Personality, Elementary Form, are used as determinants).

Classes are not called 7A, 7B, etc. but are known as Adjustment Special Classes.

Criteria for admission to the CRMD

I. Q. below 76, as a result of an individual intelligence test given by the Bureau of Child Guidance
Chronological age 13 and above
Placement recommended by the Bureau of Child Guidance
Placement authorized by the Bureau CRMD
These are called Junior Opportunity Classes.

The school life of the pupils is organized on a homeroom basis. This homeroom is where they live and have their belongings—a working, living, guidance room in which much of their activity is carried on. These rooms are on the second floor and are adjoining in order to facilitate departmentalization. Further, these rooms are large, attractive, light, well decorated. They provide space for work tables, bookcases, work benches, file cabinets, display cabinets, paint closets. In short, they are the best arranged rooms the school can afford.

Program

A departmentalized program runs parallel to the plan for normal children. It fulfills the philosophy of meeting the social needs of the child. These children, although segregated into a separate unit

for academic and vocational reasons, are as much a part of the school as any other group. They participate at the level of their interest and ability in all of the school-wide enterprises: the assemblies, the patrol, the student council, music, health education, and shops.

Their academic work is departmentalized to meet the social needs of the children. All academic subjects are taught by CRMD teachers. These subjects are motivated by the experiences which are the outgrowth of the development of the core.

Vocational training is provided in addition to that given in the shops of the regular track. This training is developed in the program of occupational education through the study of the Cores. It is correlated and integrated as nearly as possible with the vocational training received in the school shops.

Vocational training which is not manual training or avocational takes the form of specific training for an occupational area in which there is reasonable expectation for employment. Thus, familiarity with the work of waitress, laundry worker, etc., provides definite vocational guidance. This is one of the most important phases of the program.

One-half of each classroom is equipped as a shop to provide for the manual phase of this training. There are seven of these shops: Food Trades, Baby Care, Home Nursing, Needle Trades—beginners, Needle Trades and advanced, Household Arts, Laundry.

The program is so arranged that all children in the lower classes may have experiences in all shops. The upper classes specialize and choose the shop they wish to attend insofar as the mechanics of programming permit.

Chairman

The chairman is responsible for the coordination and administration of the unit. Some of her duties are as follows:

Guidance
- Social
- Educational
- Vocational

Testing—scoring-use of results
Placement of pupils—according to law requirements.
Teacher Programs
- Academic
- Vocational

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Supervision and Aid to Teachers
- Reference material
- Teaching material
- Interpretation of curricular cores
- Planning for needs

Reports
- Bureau reports
- Supplies
- Conferences

Conferences

It is very important that conferences be held. The success of the unit depends upon careful planning by the principal, the chairman, the supervisor, the teachers and the pupils through conferences. Continuity in the development of the cores depends upon the ability of the teachers to learn to work and plan together.

1. Principal—Chairman-Teacher Conferences
2. Chairman-Teacher Conferences
3. Teacher-Pupil Conferences or Group Guidance Periods

Children have a share in planning their various activities. The official teacher indicates to them the core topic of the week and the continuity and interrelationships of all the subject activities. A conference period at the end of the week provides an opportunity for pupils to check, summarize, and evaluate work.

Instruction

There is specialization by CRMD teachers as subject teachers. Special abilities of teachers are more fully utilized. Shops, equipment, and supplies may be used more economically. Instruction is improved.

Instruction is improved through reduced age and academic spans in a given class.

Individual pupil programs may be made more easily. Children may be grouped with others of similar social needs.

Activities

"The school activities of all children should be vital and meaningful."

1. *Parent's Party*

Parents naturally wish their children to get an education. The general opinion tends to overvalue the white-collar job. An effort is made through an Annual Parents' Party to acquaint them with the aims and purposes of the program. A tour is made through

the classrooms, where parents may see pupils at work at such tasks as learning to care for babies, removing spots from clothing, waiting on tables, etc.

2. *Career Conference*

First hand contacts with persons from the job world are provided. This type of activity yields large returns in stimulating interest and awareness of vocational requirements. Contacts are made with business men and women who discuss their fields of work. Pupil participation is an important part of such a conference.

3. *Trips*

Trips are taken as a follow-up of the career conference, to provide children with further first-hand experiences. Some places visited were a factory, a chain restaurant, a school of beauty culture, and a hospital.

The results of such trips are interesting: the director of the school of beauty culture made a home visit to an interested pupil and offered assistance in planning a career; a pupil applied for a job on her own initiative at a "smart" chain restaurant and was employed.

4. *Films*

Films are shown to facilitate concreteness of pupil activities. Preparatory lessons are given; follow-up activities resulted. Some of films shown are:

I Want A Job
Good Grooming
Courtesy Comes to Town

Evaluation

This program has provided rich experiences in social living, which have aided in the removal of emotional blocks.

Attendance which was formerly a great problem in this track has improved. Our school is steadily climbing in the city-wide monthly survey of attendance.

A change in *General Attitude* of these pupils toward school has been effected. Pupils show interest in their work. There is more participation in activities of the school, assembly programs, student council, etc. Pupils have developed a feeling of security, of belonging. They show pride in achievement and pride in their unit of work or core.

Academic training is developed at the level of the pupil's ability. Parents realize that their children are making academic progress.

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This satisfies their desire to see their children acquire some education.

Social Guidance is based on acquiring patterns of good citizenship, and the actual behavior problems are fewer.

Vocational Guidance is realistic. The child is led to recognize his potentialities, abilities and how the best use of these can be made. Guidance has led to selection of suitable job areas for vocational training. The matter of *Community Relationships* is brought home vitally to the pupils of the CRMD and CRMD-Adjustment unit.

Contacts have been made with the church, the Urban League, the Mayor's Committee on Unity, the Parent-Teachers Association and the Press. These contacts have brought about a closer relationship between school and community plus a better understanding of the school, its function, and its services to all its children.

One of the most valuable outcomes of this program is the change in the relationship between the pupils of this track and those in the other tracks of the school. Pupils in the other tracks view the accomplishments of the pupils in the CRMD unit in the assemblies and clubs with respect, and accept them as fellow citizens of the school.

This experiment as planned by Dr. Hungerford and supervised by Mr. Rosenzweig is solving many of the problems that formerly existed in the tension area in which Junior High School 81 is located. The so-called problems are disappearing rapidly, for the Program of Occupational Education is giving to mentally retarded pupils interests on their level of comprehension, five hours a day in a clean healthy atmosphere of study and purposeful activity, and a goal which they may attain. At Junior High School 81, this program in Occupational Education is no longer an experiment. It has been in operation since 1942. Today, as a result of follow-up studies, all who work with these children know that they can be trained to be self-supporting, self-respecting citizens.

SYLVIA C. FINKLEY* Junior High School 81

* Chairman of the unit.

AN EXPERIMENT WITH ADJUSTMENT PUPILS

THE PROBLEM. Retarded, overage, and dull pupils were grouped in so-called adjustment classes. Teachers did not like assignments

to these classes. The pupils were programmed the same as the pupils in normal classes. Some attempt was made to modify the course of study, but, in general, the adjustment pupils were taught by the same procedures and techniques used in teaching the normal pupils. The adjustment pupils were held to the same passing mark as other pupils.

The results were unsatisfactory:

1. Serious behavior and truancy problems resulted from the inability of adjustment pupils to adjust to the regular curriculum.
2. Adjustment pupils could not maintain themselves. They were either left back or promoted on trial, a device which meant little. Retardation and emotional behavior problems piled up.
3. The teachers were discouraged and tried to steer clear of adjustment classes. If assigned, they regarded the assignment as a form of punishment or as a sentence for a term.

THE OPPORTUNITY CLASSES. Starting in February, 1945, two adjustment classes, the 7A and the 8A classes, were organized as 7A Opportunity Class and 8A Opportunity Class. The term *Adjustment* was dropped. The pupils were told that these were opportunity classes in which each pupil, who was badly retarded, had the opportunity to make up a grade. This sounds odd, but we felt that with the course of study especially adjusted to the needs of these pupils, with the texts selected within the language abilities of these pupils, with a door opened to these pupils who had been more or less neglected and kicked about, the pupils would do a job and try to regain lost ground.

Statistics

A. *7A Opportunity Class*
   1. Register 26
   2. I.Q. range 54-96.—Median I.Q.—79
   3. C.A. range 12.11-14.9.—Median C.A.—13.10 (should be 12)
   4. M.A. range 7.6—13.4—Median M.A.—10.5
   5. Grade Expectancy range 2B-8A.—Median G.E.—5B

B. *8A Opportunity Class*
   1. Register—28
   2. I.Q. range 61—103.—Median I.Q.—81
   3. C.A range 13.4—15.8.—Median C.A.—14.3 (should be 13)
   4. M.A. range 9.6—14.4.—Median M.A.—11.4
   5. Grade Expectancy Range 4B-9A.—Median G.E.—6A.

Techniques and Procedures

1. The course of study was considerably simplified.

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2. Each major subject was organized into ten units or contracts.
3. Each pupil worked at his own rate of speed.
4. Upon the completion of the contract the pupil was tested. If the test was satisfactory, the pupil proceeded to the next unit of contract.
5. After a pupil finished ten units or contracts, he was promoted to the next grade.
6. Special charts were posted in the room to let the pupil have visual evidence of his progress. The chart was a simple one. The unit numbers ran horizontally. The pupils' names ran vertically. When a pupil completed a unit, a box on the chart was marked off.
7. Frequent class conferences were held by teacher and pupils to discuss a new unit, a new technique, a problem.
8. The official teacher was programmed for the class in arithmetic, English, social studies, home room, a total of 20 periods a week.
9. Standardized tests were given the pupils at the beginning and at the end of the term.
10. Special guidance is given the pupils in these classes.

Texts Used

Great care was taken in selecting texts within the reading ability of the pupils. All texts are on the New York City Textbook list.

Texts for 7A

1. Spelling: *Down the Path* (Book 4)—Betts & Avery, American Book Company
2. Reading: *Adventure Trails* (5A level)—Johnson, American Education Press.
3. English: *Writing for Skill*—McKee & Corven, Houghton Mifflin.
4. Arithmetic: *A Workbook for Living Arith.*—(Grade 4) Buswell et al.; Ginn & Company.

Texts for 7B

1. Spelling: *Finding New Ways* (Book 5)—Betts & Avery, American Book Company
2. Reading: *Exploring Today* (5th & 6th year levels)—Johnson, American Education Press
3. English: *Writing from Experience*—McKee & McCowen, Houghton, Mifflin.
4. Arithmetic: *Workbook for Living Arithmetic* (Grade 5),—Buswell et al., Ginn & Company

Texts for the 8A Op. and the Present 8A-8B Op. Classes

Arithmetic

8A—*A Workbook for Living Arithmetic*—(Grade 6)—Buswell, Brownell, John, Ginn & Company

8B—*A Workbook for Living Arithmetic* (Grade 7)—Buswell, Brownell, John, Ginn & Company

9A—*A Workbook for Living Arithmetic* (Grade 8)—Buswell, Brownell, John, Ginn & Company

English

8A-8B—Literature
Looking Ahead (6th grade), Greenwood and Williams. The Harrison Pub. Co., 32 South 4th Street, Columbus, Ohio.

8A-8B—Composition and Grammar
Writing Clearly (6th grade), McKee and McCowen. Houghton Mifflin Company

8A-8B—Spelling and Word Study
Clearing the Ground (6th grade), Betts and Avery. American Book Company

9A—Composition and Grammar
Essentials of Everyday English (7th grade), Ferris and Keener, Laidlaw Brothers

9A—Spelling and Word Study
Using Words (7th grade), Billington, Silver Burdett Company

For 8B pupils who are finishing 8B and hope to do 9A this term
Essential of Everyday English (6th grade), Ferris and Keener, Laidlaw Brothers
Using Words (6th grade), Billing, Silver Burdett Company.

Results: Academic

There was considerable improvement in almost every subject because:

1. The course of study had been considerable modified.
2. The texts used were within the reading ability of the pupils.
3. The classes were with the official teacher 20 periods a week.

Here is a summary of academic results based on a report sent to the office by the teachers. This report is too difficult to type and is on file in my office.

Academic Results

Subject	*Failures Beg. of Term*		*Failures End of Term*	
	7A Op	8A Op.	7A Op	8A Op
Reading	no record		no record	
Arithmetic	12	11	2	1
English	10	12	6	1
Social Studies	9	11	3	1
Science	8	12	1	9

Results: Psychological

There was a definite change in the attitude of most of the pupils in these two classes. They did not feel as if they had been neglected.

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With an adjusted course of study and with texts within their reading level, the majority of the pupils felt a sense of achievement. They felt they "belonged." This was reflected in improved attendance and behavior. This was not true in all cases. There was little or no response from a few of the pupils during the first term of the experiment.

Attendance and Conduct Records

	Record Feb. 1945		Record June 1945	
	7A	8A	7A	8A
Pupils Absent 10 or more days (excluding holy days)	11	17	7	7
Unsatisfactory Conduct	6	8	1	3

Results: For the School

1. The tone of the entire school was improved.
   a. The 52 opportunity class pupils did not circulate as much as heretofore since they were with the official teacher for 20 periods a week.
   b. The other classes were not clogged with problem cases and the work hindered by pupils who could not maintain themselves.
   c. The pupils in the opportunity classes felt better and happier because they were achieving a certain modicum of success. This was reflected in the conduct picture of the school. This was not true in all cases.

2. The teachers realized that a concrete plan was being set up to handle what had heretofore been a difficult and unpleasant problem. The teachers for the two classes, Mrs. Smits and Miss Isaacs, volunteered for the job and did an exceptionally fine piece of work. Assisting to a considerable extent was Mrs. Ronci, acting assistant.

3. Interest in the progress and development of the adjustment pupils has been created among the teachers.

Results: At End of Term

A. Disposition of 7A Op. Class

1. To 7A op.	4 (no promotion)
2. To 7B—regular classes	3
3. To 7B op.	7
4. To 8A, regular classes	5
5. To 8A op.	7
Total	26

B. Disposition of 8A Op. Class.

1. To 8A op.	1 (no promotion)
2. To 8B regular classes	—2
3. To 8B op.	—5
4. To 9A adjustment	10
5. To 9A op.	4
6. To vocational high schools	6
Total	28

Summary of Progress

1. Out of 26 pupils in the 7A op. class, 12 gained a term.
2. Out of 28 pupils in the 8A op. class, 14 gained a term.

Six completed the 8B work and entered a vocational high school.

Program for the Term Beginning September, 1945

Three adjustment groups have been brought into the program this term with the organization of three opportunity classes: 7A-7B op., 7B-8A op., 8A-8B-9A op.

The Failures—Reasons

There are certain pupils who have not benefited by this program. A careful study of these pupils indicates that they are generally psychopathic cases with definite emotional blocs. These pupils are incapable of sustained effort. They break out in unexpected and unpredictable behavior patterns. Actually, they are sick children and should not be in a school classroom. They take up a disproportionate amount of time and energy. They interfere with the pupils who wish to do a job. These pupils should be under psychiatric care.

Recommendations

Although this program has been in effect only one term, certain specific requirements are obvious. These are:

1. Skilled and understanding teachers are needed for these classes. Such teachers should be licensed to do this special type of remedial work.
2. The maximum register of these classes should be 20.
3. To give teachers of these classes the necessary free periods to prepare the work and do the required guidance, an extra teaching position should be allowed the school.
4. An additional appropriation for special texts and materials is needed.

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If these recommendations are followed, I am confident that the majority of the problems encountered in adjustment classes can be solved. The pupils, except where the case is abnormal, can be restored to self-respect and to useful careers in school and out of school.

MYRON R. GOLDIN

Junior High School 109

VOICES IN A RADIO SHOW

In the preparation of a radio show for an assembly, many difficult problems must be faced and solved. In the first place, the play selected should be suitable for the audience intended. This is not the least of your tasks. It must be remembered that while a play may be enthusiastically received by a senior assembly, the same play may confuse or bore a freshman group . . . and vice versa. But let us assume the play is fitting . . . the accoustics in the auditorium perfect . . . the microphone in working order . . . the sound effects more than effective . . . and the dramatic group better than adequate . . . i.e. let us pretend that we are somewhere within a paradise for radio production. How does one go about selecting and preparing the voices of the performers?

I chose Corwin's *The Odyssey of Runyon Jones* for an assembly program. It had a great appeal for freshman as well as senior audiences. First, I threw the job of casting and preparation into the lap of my student director, and set the date for the initial rehearsal. That first rehearsal was very bad. In general, the parts were not given on the basis of voice, but on appearance. Appearance, though of extreme importance in a stage production, has little value in a radio show. In radio, it is not the six footer, who weighs two hundred pounds, who can take the part of the GIANT, but the smaller boy with the booming voice. FATHER TIME is rarely the oldest boy of the group, but the one who can put the proper quaver and irritability into his voice. And RUNYON JONES does not have to be the youngest or the smallest boy in the cast.

It was necessary for me to shift most of the parts within the group so that the voices more nearly approximated the demands of the characters.

Now that the cast has been selected, the job of rehearsals begins. The great danger is that your actors will READ the lines, and that

can destroy the play instead of illuminating it. I believe it is important to impress upon them the necessity of variety and change in their voices, to tell them that those voices are somewhat similar to the musical instruments in an orchestra, that it is the constant contrasts that make for an exciting performance. It is necessary to reveal to each one that within the range of his own voice there is room for great diversity. That one must learn the deadliness of one level of rendition.

As an example take the question: Did you do it? How many ways can this be said? Two? Four? Ten? In pitch, from low to a shout; in pace, from slow to swift; in range, from certainty to hesitation. How many ways can this question be asked? It is not the dictionary meaning of the words. It is the use of the voice that is important.

Each actor must impress upon himself the kind of character he is. Then every word he utters is colored by that knowledge, and by the understanding of the other characters to whom he speaks. For instance, the SUPERINTENDENT, a minor character, is sympathetic to the boy. Therefore, his voice should reveal that feeling beyond the words he says. The CLERK, filled with self-importance, should be officious and abrupt, etc.

Putting on a radio show in an assembly is no easy task. But the pleasure of the performers in a good show, and the enthusiastic response of five hundred youngsters is sufficient reward. And now, if you are bent on doing a radio show, good luck to you. Remember the importance of the VOICES. All you need is a lot of enthusiasm, ditto patience and energy and a small bottle of aspirin!

ALFRED BRANT

Stuyvesant High School

TO SEE OURSELVES . . .

Cartoons on libraries can be very amusing, and instructive too. Under glass at the desk, they are more effective and less wearing on readers and librarians than are signs and harangues on proper behaviour in a public library.

The payment of fines is a painful experience for a majority of borrowers. Prone to complain about money penalties, they offer all kinds of excuses. Helen Hokinson shows one of her matrons innocently asking, *"Do I have to pay overtime if I didn't read the*

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book?" Another of her substantial ladies angrily tosses her head as she probes in her pocketbook, and announces, *"I'll tell you one thing —Henry James isn't worth a forty-seven cents fine."* George Price pictures a wrathful female, leaning on a pile of books, one arm akimbo, blasting balefully at a shocked librarian, *"And what's the rap if I don't choose to pay the fine?"* A different type is a demure borrower who scrubs the floor in front of a gloating librarian's desk as that lady smugly informs a questioning male that *"she's working off a library fine."* And then there is the alert young librarian holding a big book, *The Unions and Labor,* making a triumphant pronouncement to a bettle-browed man: *"This book is ten days overdue —you'll have to pay time and a half."*

The law of silence is another source of inspiration to the cartoonist. Garrett Price shows a hatchet-bearing fireman, as smoke pours through the door of an inner room, apologetically whispering in the ear of an oblivious scholar absorbed in reading—*"P-s-s-st."* The quiet of another reading room is disturbed by a man dashing down an aisle with a large sign bearing the warning FIRE! Incomparable Little Lulu has taken matters into her own hands with the aid of a jar of library paste in a cartoon that reveals her contentedly reading a large volume, as her fat little boyfriend looks ready to explode, a SILENCE sign plastered across his mouth. In different mood, Barbour depicts a scowling man turned toward two vivacious librarians who are unconcernedly conducting an animated conversation, unaware of his admonishing "Sh-h!"

Some cartoonists enjoy poking fun at the reading guidance proffered by salesmen in book stores. By extension, non-reading librarians might be included. Robert Day captures an irresponsible, smiling clerk blithely assuring a drooping-mouthed customer, *"The Sunday Times said it's what the world has been waiting for. That's all I know about it."* A more eclectic salesman (from *The Saturday Review of Literature*) admits, *"I've read six reviews of it and I don't know what to think."* Another A. John Kaunus—drawing features a spectacled young employee confiding to a colleague, *"I guess I'll read this one. Everybody I recommended it to says it's good."*

Other cartoonists stress the idiosyncrasy of the reader instead of the libarian's short-comings. This sort is represented by Bobby Sox, who, clutching a huge flower to her meager bosom, appeals to the librarian: *"I would like to take out a book big enough to press*

this in it." There are sequences in which a patron spends thoughtful minutes at various book shelves, ostensibly weighing the value of different tomes, only to place the book on top of her head as she glides in posture exercises in the privacy of her home. Then we have the uninhibited little boy, scrapbook and scissors in hand, who boldly asks a startled librarian, *"Where will I find some picture books?"* And the ingenuous little girl who shakes the sanctimony of a prim librarian with *"I want to just practice reading—where's the trash?"*

But the best of all library cartoons is the work of William Steig. One of his young fry, cap in hand, stands manfully at a library discharging desk, looking expectantly at the librarian. She holds his card in one hand, her dating pencil in the other. Leaning forawrd on her swivel chair, her eyebrows darting, her nose disdainful, her ophidian neck outstretched, she barks: *"We can't run this library to suit you, Mr. Hoffman."*

IRMA SCHWEIKART Bronx High School of Science

Books

Consumer Education and the Social Studies
The Role of Mathematics in Consumer Education
The Place of Science in the Education of the Consumer
The Relation of Business Education to Consumer Education
Consumer Education and Home Economics in the Secondary Schools

Consumer Education Study, Washington, D. C. 25¢ each.

Periodically all of us are engaged in discovering another hopeful sign in modern education. Here is one of these hopeful signs. The five largest groups of educators in the American secondary school

1. The National Science Teachers Association
2. The National Council of Teachers of Mathematics
3. The National Council for the Social Studies
4. The National Council for Business Education
5. The Home Economists

are seeing great visions in consumer education. The Consumer Education Study would be the last to claim that *it* aroused the interest of these civic groups in consumer education, and the first to agree that the growing interest of these groups brought about the need for the Consumer Education Study.

What runs through these five excellent studies is really one important vision—*Education is for use*—for use in daily living, for use in looking forward to the future, for use in understanding the problems that beset us. At one time or another the concept of *education for use* must have been

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remarkably clear in men's minds, because what education they did acquire was promptly put to use, be it by the monk in his monastery, the scrivener at his desk or the apprentice on his work bench. We mightn't be far wrong in looking with grave suspicion upon the more recent type of education that made gentlemen. The five national associations that have contributed these five pamphlets to consumer education are definitely committed to education for use.

The Consumer Education Study refers to these five pamphlets as *Cooperative Reports and Records for Teachers of Subjects Concerned with Consumership*. We have one fault to find. If only the Study would abandon the term "consumership" which is ugly, mongrel, and sickeningly meaningless! Let's continue to think in terms of human welfare, of people, and less of some of the questionable skills that are identified with "consumership."

1. Social Studies

The National Council for the Social Studies has turned out what is probably the best over-all job, with the ablest grasp, and the finest style of the lot. Occasionally the reading there may be a little tough if you aren't familiar with modern educational jargon. Their pamphlet begins with an analysis of the needs for consumer education and winds up with the thought that the secondary school apply itself to the specific practices and immediate problems of the high school student, and that the teacher reject those materials which are not intimately related to the lives of the students. The Social Studies Council is not particularly happy with the present organization of the curriculum and is inclined to feel that consumer education will not develop adequately unless fundamental human concerns become the focal point of education. Dividing consumer education among subject matter members of the curriculum tends to a lack of balance, inadequate social interpretation and generally sub-standard education of all students in the consumer field. There are specific topical suggestions in history, economics, civics, insights into pervasive learnings and organized learning experiences, a program of evaluation for consumer education in the social studies. Unfortunately there is no bibliography.

2. Mathematics

The National Council of Teachers of Mathematics has turned out one of the most carefully reasoned studies in consumer education in its relationship to mathematics that it has been the good fortune of this reader to see. Unlike the fanatics and idealists in the field of consumer education, these men display an occasional sense of humor, hence we'll be less severe with the mathematicians for overlooking the logical fallacy of defining consumer education as something that makes the consumer more intelligent. In other words consumer education is educating the consumer. On the other hand when mathematicians definitely want the young consumer to be social-minded, that's humility that doesn't characterize most of the specialists, who normally believe that they hold the key to human freedom, learning, etc.

These people actually ask in public: *What mistakes have we made in teaching the mathematics of consumer education?* And the answer:

1. A very practical mathematical problem may be "deadly boring" to 7th and 8th grade youngsters. Give them something they can use.
2. Mathematics often uses obsolete materials and problems.
3. We fail to emphasize the social implications of a good deal of consumer arithmetic. Said the teacher, "What would your father have to pay if he owed $30 for rent, $34 to the grocer and $15 to the milk man?" Answers the pupils: "Nothing,—we would move." Overlook the sense of humor and recognize the simple fact that insurance, taxes, installment buying, balance sheets are not merely mathematics but social problems, which the mathematics teacher all too frequently is not prepared to discuss.

The National Council proceeds to organize a mathematics program from the elementary school through senior high school which, by and large, deserves the closest attention of every mathematics teacher. There is a mild inconsistency of concept when the authors say: . . . *"Realize that the intelligent reader is a consumer of ideas as well as of food, shelter, clothing and services, and then indicate on another page that arithmetic can't become exclusively consumer education because children who live a normal life at school and at home engage in activities not at all related to consumer education."* As an example they cite: *telling time, finding height and weight, measuring distances for relay races, studying bus schedules.* As a matter of fact if these haven't consumer values, what has? The pamphlet concludes with reliable sources of information on consumer problems. May we suggest for the next revision of the pamphlet a dozen modern applications of mathematics to consumer problems in the various age levels in our schools? Another clarification that is badly needed is the vital distinction between *producer* mathematics and *consumer* mathematics. Confusion weakens both and the curriculum.

3. In Science

The National Science Teachers Association turned out an extremely fine job on the place of science in consumer education, but neglected to apply to it some of the scientific accuracy for which it stands. It locates one of the consumer organizations where it isn't, and lists another that has been out of existence for many years. Its bibliography is not really as good as it should be; in fact, the business education bibliography is greatly superior to it for the science teacher! It has many striking sentences, such as *"Any science worth teaching for any reason has value in the education of consumers,"* which is doubtful, and *"When science teaching emphasizes consumer values there is better science teaching"* which no one will dispute. The consensus of opinion among the scientists is that certain science materials deserve a priority in the education of the consumer and other materials have a lesser place.

The Council takes science teachers to task for leaving to the student the entire task of *translating scientific facts and principles into intelligent action in every day living.* The recommendations are that

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(1) scientists go somewhat more deeply into the problems of food, clothing, housing, health, recreation, and that
(2) the scientists become increasingly conscious of the social implications of their work and that
(3) young people learn to use the scientific approach in all phases of living.

There is an interesting section on teaching methods and a section on proposals for further action in general.

The National Science Teachers Association seems to prefer that fewer science teachers consider themselves Niels Bohr or Harvey and get down to the great shibboleth of science, *what are you doing to make the life of the consumer richer, fuller of understanding, better.* Interpret science in terms of every day living to every day people.

On page 5 of this pamphlet we come across an inexcusable but common tautology: *"Consumer education is being taught. . . ."* Education is never taught and the statement deserves to be ostracized here, now and forever. Consumer education is general education. A subject may be taught, not education.

Incidentally, there is a great lack of appreciation of the part that science, biological or physical, plays *in the life of the girl and, later, the housewife.* Many of the factors in *producer* science are of little or no interest to the girls who are really going to use science all their lives. A functional organization of the science course around the kitchen and the activities therein, around cleaning, maintenance of machinery, etc., would go a long way toward making the physical sciences more useful to the young ladies. The care and nutrition of children and an adequate knowledge of the infectious diseases of childhood, the maintenance of the mother's health, the science of home life, would go a long way toward creating a happier and healthier American home.

The scientists, too, have omitted the *psychological* aspects of the consumer-buyer, some insight into the physical human needs; in fact, there is a serious question whether the biological sciences can't be significantly improved to provide adequate consumer education in this most important area of all of the sciences to the individual.

Again the distinction between *producer* and *consumer* science has not been made satisfactorily. The Bernouilli effect belongs in the science curriculum, but by what criteria does it belong in consumer science?

4. In Home Economics

In the pamphlet *Consumer Education and Home Economics* we come down to some of the rock bottoms of consumer education. Home economics wrongly enough has been the special sphere for girls, and, in the bad judgment of many, the particular sphere for the girls *who are not very smart.* The high I. Q.'s somehow or other don't need home economics: Heaven forbid that a male should take a course in home economics! No one's sense of symmetry is hurt when a young lady is *required* to take a course in theoretical economics, in which producer field there are a thousand men to every woman, but for the home where there should be and nowadays there is an adequate

sharing of responsibility, the male is completely exempted from a need for information. The pamphlet is realistic, and yet it fails to make an issue of this essential weakness in the home economics program.

A fuller realism however is revealed in its basic concept for consumer education—education in wise choice-making, in discrimination and in appreciation of value be that value physical or spiritual in nature. Although more home economists confine themselves to personal and individual problems, this national group of economists makes it one of its tenets that home economics, consumer welfare and the economic system are closely tied together. There is an excellent analysis of the content of consumer education and a few good pages on methods, techniques, and aids in teaching.

5. In Business Education

The pamphlet on the relation of business education to consumer education contains the best general bibliography of the lot, and one of the best sections on learning activities and instructional methods. It recognizes the individual's needs and particularly the needs of the adolescent in consumer education.

It sees the main goals of consumer education as

1. making intelligent choices
2. learning to be an effective buyer
3. learning to be an efficient user of goods and services
4. learning to manage personal financial affairs
5. becoming conscious of wider social and economic responsibilities

Business education has failed for a long time in the matter of consumer education because for one reason or another it was boosted to make stenography, bookkeeping, business law, and even merchandising consumer education. Business educators have tried to point out that a few years spent on shorthand will make college note-taking easier (a very bad educational practice anyway), that a study of double-entry bookkeeping will make you a competent bookkeeper of your household moneys, and that a study of merchandising is consumer education, a conception which is, of course, dead wrong. Many consumer problems are unquestionably business problems and so far as these can be grouped together they constitute consumer-business education —in reality, general education. Pick up any business education textbook, though, and you will be surprised to discover how little the book is oriented towards consumer needs and how much of it is vocational orientation. It might be more appropriate in business courses to try to influence the future business man to recognize the place of the consumer in our economy and to be somewhat more social-minded, and not to distort ordinary vocational education into consumer education.

The National Council for Business Education, in this pamphlet, seems to have overlooked almost completely the course in consumer goods which is given in many business education departments and in which there may be great potentiality for consumer education. In fact, the best of these courses have been going for more than a decade now and have been making an appreciable contribution to the specific skills used by consumers.

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Summary

When all of these pamphlets are taken together what do they add up to?

1. Consumer education is not the sphere of any *one* of the secondary school subjects. *It is a whole school problem.* It is a job that must be handled by a whole school curriculum conference.
2. Consumer education can never be made a satisfactory separate course. Its nature is too extensive, the knowledge it requires is too broad, and the teaching skills are too varied.
3. We still lack a reasonably sound definition of the consumer. Is the consumer the string bean and sock buyer, or is he an individual who is enormously interested in using as many of the physical and spiritual riches in the world as he can lay his mind and heart and hands on? Does he really crave the good life, or does he merely want to fill his general gizzard?
4. Are we preparing consumers to *use* the good things of life adequately or are we "educational" in the sense of adorning his mind with a superficial sort of decoration?
5. Why has the Consumer Education Study seen fit to overlook the place of English in consumer education? Isn't English capable of developing the basic philosophies of living wisely in mind and emotion, in terms of the best in literature? Why have music and art been omitted? Isn't it possible for an improved outlook in the modern languages to make a worthwhile contribution to the consumer? Naturally there are priorities and, naturally, the young men and young women in the high school cannot take all subjects, but shouldn't whatever our students take be directed towards the *use* value?
6. Nowhere do we find a satisfactory recognition of the cleavage that the times have developed in the *producer* and *consumer* activities of all of us. Nowhere is there a recognition that the major fault with our present curriculum is its failure to grow parallel to the conditions that prevail, and to call a spade a spade. Separate the producer courses from the consumer courses, enrich the content in both categories to the full, make a good producer when that's what you want, and make a good consumer when that's what we need.
7. We must become more acutely conscious of the heavy hands of the Regents and college-entrance requirements on the progressive public secondary school. Many of the changes teachers want to make because they know and feel deeply how important it is to make them aren't made—for only one reason: *"The kids have to pass the Regents"* or *"The kids have got to get into college."* Until these two bodies assume their responsibilities for better daily living, it's a stone wall we're bucking.

EDWARD REICH

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High Points

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HIGH POINTS

IN THE WORK OF THE HIGH SCHOOLS OF NEW YORK CITY

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Educating Superior Students

DAVID H. MOSKOWITZ
Assistant Superintendent, High School Division

A comprehensive report under this title, resulting from cooperative studies under the auspices of the Association of First Assistants, was published in 1935.* The chapters of which this report is composed represent the work of Standing Committees in the various subjects of study. As such, each report necessarily sets forth a subject-centered point of view, and offers suggestions as to the identification of gifted pupils, problems of organization, modifications of method appropriate to the need, the selection of teachers, enrichment of the syllabus, and recommendations of additional considerations for the development of the program. This volume is quite worthy of review.

THE SCHOOL'S RESPONSIBILITIES. Since the appearance of this report, there have been developments in many of our high schools which highlight a cleavage in attitude respecting the organization of provisions for educating superior students. In the light of comprehensive objectives, enunciated and accepted far and wide, in the expressed purpose to educate *all* American youth, there is an ever greater responsibility devolving upon secondary schools to provide adequately for the gifted students. Otherwise this group is in danger of being submerged in the general scene, and their fullest potentialities may not be realized.

The acceptance of broader objectives and the pursuit of social purposes have sometimes distracted attention from the more traditional subject mastery. That this is so is reflected in the criticisms formulated by colleges, particularly, that many students come to them less well prepared in specific "disciplines" which are the basis for the pursuit of knowledge at the college level. While it is not safe to assert that college entrants are composed exclusively of gifted students, it is a reasonable proposition that a significant percentage of our superior students do pursue education in colleges and higher institutions. This factor adds still another element of responsibility.

TYPES OF ORGANIZATION. It is clear that in our "special"

* *Educating Superior Students*, American Book Company.

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schools provision is made for the education of gifted students, who, in addition to demonstrated intellectual ability, have manifested a strong interest and capacity in the predominant objectives of the special school. In our comprehensive high schools provisions have been made for the education of superior students; but there are differences of approach to the problem. One group, impressed by the narrower concept of particularized subject abilities, follows a type of organization variously designated as "star" or "honor" classes. The emphasis here is on the subject of study, and in more extreme sense the "class" in a field of study. Another group, more concerned with general ability as a basis of organization, has set up within the total structure an "honor school."

Each of these schools of thought on the problem has its strong adherents. A couple of years ago, discussion of the subject elicited from the proponents of each view a series of papers which were published in *High Points*. In a conference recently arranged by the High School Division, and participated in by representatives of our high schools, the old cleavage of point of view appeared in the discussion.

THE SUPERIOR STUDENT. It is pertinent to weigh the arguments for the purpose of arriving at some general conclusions in reference to the discussion. A rereading of the chapters in the report brought out by the First Assistants Association reveals the existence of a common factor accepted by all subject committees for the identification of superior students; namely, an intelligence quotient of 120 or above. Some even accept an I.Q. of 110. There is common agreement that in a cosmopolitan high school from 10 to 20 per cent of the students fall in this category. These conclusions are accepted by the proponents of each point of view. To be sure, they add other considerations and other factors for identification, but any refinement of the method of selection will doubtlessly be applied to the group readily identified on the basis of general intelligence.

Arguments For Honor Classes

There are three major considerations generally advanced in behalf of the honor class type of organization: (1) adherence to the belief in special abilities; (2) administrative differences; and (3) the so-called evil social consequences of segregation. Let us examine these in reverse order.

There is no disposition to argue in behalf of segregation in any extreme sense. It is readily admitted that complete educational and social segregation can be harmful. No school which operates on the basis of an "honor school" practices such complete segregation and the testimony is eloquent that harmful social effects are not to be observed. On the contrary, all pupils meet on common grounds in the gymnasium, in the lunch room, in all studies pursued beyond the limits of the honor high school program, in general school undertakings, in extra-curricular activities. There is evidence that honor pupils are acclaimed by fellow students in general by election to posts of leadership in many fields of common endeavor. If there is any intellectual snobbishness generated, this outcome may be occasioned as well in the honor class type of organization. "Segregation" is not to be confused with classification according to ability.

The smaller schools have perhaps a more difficult administrative problem in that registration in the school and in some departments is so limited as to militate against the total organization of an "honor school." In such circumstances, the organization of honor classes is to be preferred to no classification at all. Even in larger schools, special conditions in some departments of study dictate the organization of honor classes. But schools are of sufficient size to enable them to classify from 10 to 20 per cent of the student body in a unified organization according to general ability.

GENERAL ABILITIES. Considerations already adduced herein, plus educational experiments in the form of the Eight Year Study, as well as evidence offered by psychology—the Gestalt, organic, and dynamic psychologies—support the contention of general ability, and reject the doctrine of special subject ability. Educational experience to the contrary notwithstanding, there is no evidence except perhaps in behalf of extremes of "artistic talent" (artistic in the broadest meaning of the term) to support the special ability postulate. Differences in recorded achievement may lie entirely in the realm of interest, purpose, or "drive." In fact, there are those who would explain the aforementioned extremes of talent in the same way.

Arguments For The Honor School

There are sound educational considerations to be adduced on the side of the "honor school." Let us begin with the negative statement of these considerations, each of which has a positive correlative.

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The "honor class" type of organization lacks continuity in the sense that at the end of every term or year the identity of the "class" is lost and must be reconstituted in a new context. This reconstitution may or may not happen, being dependent upon extraneous factors such as the will of a chairman of department, the availability of a teacher, the exigencies of the program, even the reluctance of the students to participate. There is lack of continuity in a more fundamental sense. There is likely to be no long-range plan of curricular modification or enrichment, applicable to the same group of pupils who have been identified and permanently classified; in brief, there can be no provision for long-range, cumulative objectives, for pupils and teachers alike, toward which to advance. This consideration envisages not a syllabus modification or enrichment for a "class," but a total, continuous curricular reorganization for gifted pupils.

The "honor class" type of organization is likely to result in departmental isolation. Each department is, in a sense, on its own, determining its policies and practices according to varying standards, perhaps even carrying on activities which interfere with the activities or purposes of another department. There is, in such context, likely to be little or no effort to achieve such correlations as are possible and desirable. The organization of a unified program should make provision for and encourage all possible correlations and integrating experiences. This can be achieved by a group of teachers of the same pupils in an "honor school" working cooperatively to achieve common purposes. The problems involved are subjected to continuous scrutiny, and the evaluation of procedures is consciously pursued under central direction.

Administratively, the organization of an "honor school" furnishes the maximum of flexibility for the attainment of educational objectives which are not only very worthwhile, but which are particularly important for gifted students. This objective is concerned with fostering independent work, inquiries, projects, research, and the use of other educational media than the class room. Administrative flexibility strengthens these opportunities and encourages "creative" undertakings, experience, or output by the sound practice of freezing pupils from the too restraining requirement of class attendance. Again, the concerted approach of all departments of study has a contribution to make to the attainment of these ends.

TO SUMMARIZE: The "honor school" organization, based upon

the principle of general ability, provides for continuity, total curricular modification and enrichment, the determination of unified, cumulative, long-range objectives, encourages correlation and integrative experiences by cooperative effort, stimulates continuous revaluation, and affords administrative flexibility for independent work.

Problems of the Professional Personnel

ERNEST O. MELBY
Dean, New York University School of Education

Education is facing the supreme test of its history. Even the very survival of civilization itself may be dependent upon the success of our educational efforts. Scientists and social leaders seem agreed that unless we can through education build human brotherhood, civilization is doomed. Such an educational task calls for the ultimate in effective, consecrated personnel. Yet the very disturbing fact is that the problems of the professional personnel have never been greater, at least in recent decades. *There is a marked shortage of competent teachers and administrators. Facilities for the preparation of such personnel are inadequate. Salaries and conditions of employment are such that fewer and fewer of the ablest students in our colleges and universities are entering the teaching profession. In fact, in some areas young people have all but stopped entering the profession of education, while those who do enter are of poorer and poorer ability.* In brief, at a time when we need more teachers we have fewer; we lack facilities to prepare them; and the status of the profession is such that young people do not wish to enter it.

THE TEACHER SHORTAGE. *For years levels of the teacher preparation in the United States have been disgracefully low. This means that a large number of teachers actually at work in schools are inadequately prepared.* If, for example, all the teachers who lack bachelor degrees were to be dropped, a large proportion of our school rooms would be left without teachers. Here we are taking no account of all those with degrees who for one reason or another are incompetent teachers.

But perhaps our greatest shortage of teachers arises from the fact

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that we have never had enough teachers to give each American school pupil the help he needs to make the greatest educational progress. *Were we to staff educational institutions adequately in terms of the educational needs of children, we would need twice as many teachers as we have today.* There are, in addition, acute needs for nursery schools and kindergartens. Were such services to become standard throughout the country thousands of additional teachers would be required.

The present influx of veterans in our colleges is but a vanguard to permanently rising numbers of students on the college level. Here the shortage of competent personnel is so critical as to reach crisis proportions. Our graduate schools have been virtually inactive for five years. In the meantime we have lost staff members by death, retirement, and transfer to other lines of work. *There is, moreover, an increasing number of quasi-educational agencies, which absorb many of our most able college teachers and administrators. These agencies can pay better salaries than educational institutions and are siphoning a considerable part of our best leadership in higher education. As matters now stand it is absolutely impossible to secure the staff needed for our colleges and universities in the next five years.*

A CONTINUING TREND. It is easy to blame the war for the plight of the teaching profession. To do so, however, is to oversimplify a very complex problem. The fact is, *the teaching profession has been losing its appeal to youth ever since the first world war.* In 1928 and 1929 there was a shortage of teachers. The coming of the depression forced considerable numbers into educational work. The State of Montana, in which I have spent the last four years, supplies an example. In 1928 teachers colleges in that State enrolled 700 students; the depression had increased this figure to 950 by 1936 from which point it fell to 67 students in 1944-45. Half of the drop had occurred before the war began. Generally speaking, the ablest students in our universities do not want to enter teaching. It would appear there are only two ways to get an adequate supply of teachers. One is to raise salaries and the other is to have a depression. In effect, both remedies are the same, for a depression raises salaries for teachers relatively.

INADEQUATE SALARIES. *In the salary area, educational administration has much to answer for. Too often administrators have*

rested on their oars, fearful of taking a definite stand for better salaries. In some cases administrators have been a drag on salary increases—if only because they have failed to be vigorous in presenting the need for salary adjustments. Generally speaking, however, I believe, salary conditions in elementary and secondary schools are relatively better than in universities and teachers colleges. One reason is that local boards of education are more responsive and intelligent than state legislatures. Another is that city school administration is more highly developed and efficient than college and university administration. This lag in universities and college is very deadly, since it is these institutions that must furnish much of our leadership.

LACK OF SPARK. Beyond the factor of low salaries however, we must find a more dynamic cause for the low estate of the teaching profession. I believe it is to be found in *the absence of a real dynamic in our enterprise.* We have not yet made education a vital force in the lives of children and youth. *Our leadership lacks inspiration and our personnel practices do not commend themselves to the more enterprising and dynamic members of American youth.* I therefore believe a four point program must be carried out if the teaching profession is to be in condition to meet its responsibilities.

RAISE SALARIES. First of all, *salaries must be substantially raised.* Rising costs of living and higher incomes in other professions are placing education at a greater and greater disadvantage in competition for talent. As matters now stand no profession which does not hold out earnings of at least $5,000.00 per year in full professional maturity for the average practitioner can expect to attract anything but mediocre talent. We need a new concept of what constitutes an adequate salary. In universities, for example, we should start instructors at $4,000.00 and make $10,000.00 the normal expectancy for competent leaders in their professional fields. Equally high expectancies should be open to teachers in elementary and high schools for comparable professional excellence.

Teachers college staff members should be of the very highest personal and professional calibre. As such, their salaries should compare favorably with those in our best universities. In the aggregate, we can safely say that no minor adjustment in salary will serve our purpose of making the profession attractive to our ablest young

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people. On an average, the salaries should be double their present levels, assuming highest level of preparation.

EXAMINE TEACHER EDUCATION. In the second place, *we must rethink our programs of teacher-education.* Present practices with regard to so called practice teaching and interneship are woefully inadequate in teachers colleges and universities. We need programs in this area that are comparable in quality and intensive character to those prevailing in medical education. Teaching is at least as complex a profession as medicine. In fact it is more dependent on many subtle psychological and personal qualities and capacities. These can be developed only through actual practice. No teacher-education institution should certify that a prospective teacher is qualified until it has satisfied itself that the individual functions effectively in an actual learning situation. Certainly teacher-education institutions cannot so certify their graduates unless they have ample opportunities for practice and for its observation. If you tell me that such a program is beyond the financial resources of our present teacher-education institutions, I merely reply that the resources must be found for such a program. I see no reason why teacher-education should not cost just as much as medical education if it is done on an acceptable basis. We need to meet these problems head-on, develop the programs and make determined efforts to secure the necessary resources and facilities. Whenever teachers are required to have five, six, or seven years of intensive preparation, we shall have gone a long way toward establishing the profession on a sound basis, and commending it to the brightest and richest personalities among our young people.

REVISE ADMINISTRATION. Years of experience in various types of teaching and administrative work lead me to the conclusion that *one of the basic weaknesses of the educational profession is the outmoded administrative machinery under which it is now attempting to function.* Most of our administrative patterns were borrowed from industry in a period when both our educational philosophy and our knowledge of human relationships were far below what they now are. If you take the trouble to interview a considerable number of teachers with regard to their attitudes toward the administrative situations in which they are working, you will discover that in a large proportion of the cases they feel disillusioned, frustrated, and

hampered by the existing machinery. In our large cities, particularly, the situation has become well-nigh unworkable.

In medicine and in hospital management the aim has been to give the individual medical practitioner the greatest possible freedom and in addition to multiply his various faculties by providing him with specialized services available at his beck and call. In education we seem to have moved in opposite directions. *As time goes on we seem to move more and more of the important decisions further and further away from the place where the child is living and learning.* In medical practice the important decisions are made by the practicing physician in closest relationship to the individual patient. In education we tend to make them in offices of boards of education, miles away from the individual children. *Such administrative practices are making a trade of teaching when it ought to be a profession.* They are mechanizing the education process and robbing teachers of the opportunity of utilizing their professional knowledge and skill. *I am convinced that we shall never make the teaching profession appeal to young people until we give a greater creative power to educational leadership in administration than is the case at the present time.* Too often in our administrative work we have emphasized the managerial and controlling aspects without stressing the creative potentialities which this field of work should develop. Too often administrators are chosen because of their managerial abilities while their inspirational qualities are overlooked. Today we have great need of school administrators and leaders in every educational field who have the vision and personal magnetism to inspire their coworkers with the potentiality of our work in the present world situation.

GIVE EDUCATION A MISSION. But the fourth and perhaps the most important need of all in establishing the educational profession on a more attractive basis is that of *giving education a real mission in the lives of our people and in the preservation of our democratic values.* Generally speaking, I do not believe that the average American youth feels that education has a very vital relationship to the things in which he is really interested. He sees it as a mechanical process of inculcuating certain stereotypes and certain more or less mechanical skills. He does not see the teaching process as an inspirational dynamic in the lives of our people, and I think that until our young people see education in this light, we shall have

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difficulty securing the ablest leaders among them, even though we increase the salaries, modify our teacher education facilities, and give our school a more inspirational administration. All over the world, people are seeking some kind of spiritual dynamic to which they can give their lives. Actually there is a spiritual hunger that is very widespread today. Oftentimes the materialism and selfishness that is evident is but a defense mechanism in a situation where talent and hopes and aspirations go begging for opportunity for expression. Today we think of education as meeting the needs of all of our people from nursery school throughout the entire span of life. This means providing educational opportunities literally for 140,000,000 people in our country. When you bear in mind the fact that these 140,000,000 people are all different, that each has creative powers and potentialities, it is difficult to see how any enterprise could be more thrilling and dynamic than that of education. The difficulty of it is that we have rarely seen the task in these terms. Once we interpret our tradition of human brotherhood and democracy in vital terms, and translate this conception into the realities of a creative education, and a creative community life, we shall have a program for the educational profession, and the profession so vitalized will commend itself to the best creative spirits in our society.

BOLD, CREATIVE THINKING. *All the work that we do in establishing the educational profession on a sounder basis must be done in the perspective of the eduactional goals and purposes that we seek. A mere manipulation of such factors as salaries, tenure, and other aspects of teacher welfare will in and of itself have little meaning.* Only when these administrative and personnel practices are developed in terms of creative philosophies of education and human relationships will they be effective. We need bold and creative thinking in these areas and only through such bold and creative thinking can we save the educational profession for the magnificent opportunities that lie ahead for it in the atomic age.

The Expansion of Cooperative Education in New York City

GRACE BRENNAN*

An increasing amount of interest has been shown in the phase of education known in New York City as Cooperative and Apprentice Education. Cooperative classes were first authorized in 1915 and have been maintained successfully to the present time with the result that an apprentice program was included in more recent years. In these programs the pupils spend alternate weeks in school and on related jobs in industry during their latter year or two years of high school.

About fifteen years ago such classes were reorganized in the belief that decentralized instruction and centralized placement would best serve the interests of the pupils and employers of the city. During this time despite the many obstacles of the boom days, the depression era, the pre-war training and the grim war period, and finally reconversion, the schools, management and labor have met on a common ground, that of cooperation in the training of young people to take their places in the business of this community.

THE BILL IS SIGNED. This article is not intended as a further discussion of either present status or past accomplishment. On April 10, 1946, Governor Thomas E. Dewey signed a bill which ought to give great impetus for expansion, progress and professional growth in cooperative and apprentice education. The education law by this legislation is now amended to include, under approval of Commissioner of Education, the days spent on related work experience as an integral part of the school program. There are important requisites concerned in this law, namely that supervision at work must be by school personnel and that an effective system of job rating and job attendance must be maintained.

The development of this program has long been hampered by its expense in teacher time for both instruction and supervision. There is no need to stress the necessity of smaller classes for any type of special instruction, the consequent increase in the number of teachers needed and the desirability of additional teachers for more adequate supervision of pupils at work.

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FULL STATE-AID. Up to now state-aid has been allowed only for the time spent in the classroom instruction, on the general principle that state-aid is computed on average daily attendance in school. *The total program now becomes acceptable for full reimbursement.* What are the implications for us? Are there to be any far-reaching effects of this new legislation? In terms of last year's figures this will mean that approximately $100,000 more a year will be appropriated to our school system for the express purpose of expansion of this type of training.

This, of course, is important—for two very obvious reasons. To a large extent, we shall be enabled to enroll greater numbers of pupils in the program in both the academic and vocational high schools and thereby develop more fields of cooperative training for our pupils. We can thus provide more trained youth to be absorbed into various areas of employment in the community. This matter of need for additional school personnel has been a very practical one, and in many cases principals who believed thoroughly in the philosophy of this type of education were unable to establish such courses because of insuperable problems in administration and programming. Full reimbursement removes this impediment and should result in an increase in pupils seeking high school education in the cooperative program. The Board of Education and the Superintendent of Schools in expressing satisfaction at the enactment of this legislation expressed assurance that additional teaching personnel would be provided for the program. Thus the first valuable result of the new law is at hand.

NEW CONCEPT. Another consideration is the acceptance of the concept among educators and legislators that work-experience properly selected and supervised is of definite educational value. This first step in this growing acceptance was the allowance of academic credit for such work-experience, and the second step was the declaration of work-experience as an integral part of the school program.

This legislation is a milestone of greater importance in education than at first appears to the casual reader. When we appraise what has been accomplished we recognize that development as human beings in personal traits and in adjustment for harmonious living which result from contacts made possible in these programs is recognized on a par with formal instruction in a classroom. The argument that education is training for living is strongly supported here.

It is obvious that a program of this type must always be flexible to meet advancement in new business methods, adjustments in labor or management relations and adaptations necessary to progress in an ever-changing economy.

NEW PROVISIONS. It is generally accepted that the group of young people between 16-18 years of age will constitute a major problem in the employment market in the years immediately ahead. While the high percent of employment which existed among this group during war times will certainly decrease, it is equally true that the numbers between those ages will remain fairly constant and very many of them should be allowed to work. Every effort should be made to extend programs of education which provide work concurrent with high school training.

The cooperative and apprentice program does not cover anywhere near the numbers of young people who might benefit by it.

No single reason can be offered for guiding a pupil to this course, but testimony is abundant from pupils who are products of the plan that it has contributed in a very special way to starting them on their business careers through development of personal qualities and maturity as well as in providing practical experience under the most desirable auspices.

Through the cooperative plan, realism can be brought into the curriculum and since our efforts are directed toward providing situations where our young people can cooperate and understand each other in common enterprise, it seems to me there is no more practical and educational way of providing for this than through the establishment of a cooperative unit in every high school.

The following factors are suggested for consideration in the development of such a program. The program should draw from the cross-section of the school and not be confined to the exceptional pupil at either end of the scale. Only pupils sixteen years of age and over should be enrolled in line with the New York State legal working-paper age. It has been found that the fifth term is the best at which to commence the alternation between school and work. Young people at this period begin to strive for economic independence as well as for a certain satisfaction that work-experience develops. It should be noted that reports concerning the question of drop-outs indicate the high holding power of this program during the period of greatest drop-outs in secondary schools.

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INESCAPABLE RESPONSIBILITY. No one believes that the cooperative and apprentice education program is the solution to all our educational ills but reasonable assurance can be expressed, in which business and labor agree, that schools which provide such education do undoubtedly make greater contribution to the development of youth into responsible, self sufficient citizens of their community.

Labor, management and legislation all facilitate, in an unprecedented way, our path to expansion in this field. We are now confronted with the administrative problem of channeling these advances by establishing additional units for the benefit of many more young people in our high schools.

Veterans' Program in the Academic High Schools

HENRY BURNELL SCHAEFER*

The successful readjustment of veterans to civilian life requires the full attention of the community and the agencies, groups, and individuals who comprise it. The Board of Education's share in accomplishing this objective is to furnish educational facilities. This article is an account of the efforts of the High School Division to establish training programs in the academic day and evening high schools which would meet the needs of the veterans. Facing a steady stream of discharged men and women, the division made great efforts to create courses for which there was a demand, to set up an organization capable of handling the diverse problems of the men, to obtain teachers to staff the schools, and to maintain the necessary flexibility in planning this program.

ENROLLMENT. Veteran enrollment is concentrated in the evening schools. Several reasons account for this preference over the day schools. Many veterans must support themselves while they finish their high school work. Others wish to conserve the time allotted to them under the G. I. Bill of Rights for college rather than secondary school. Among other factors that prove annoying to the

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veteran are the immaturity of pupils of high school age and the inevitable organization and discipline of the day high school in terms of adolescent requirements. Consequently veterans have registered in the evening schools where the great majority of pupils are adults. Solution of the problem by establishment of day veteran centers requires separate buildings, when it is difficult to obtain and equip such centers, or incorporating them within already overcrowded schools. Since veteran daytime enrollment is limited, such an expanded program has not been justified. When veterans have registered in the day school, privileges have been granted to them and efforts have been made to provide proper facilities for them. George Washington High School has made notable progress in organizing a program of acceleration, veteran section rooms, and veteran advisers. Evidently many veterans have found day schools adequate, for on May 10, 1946, 1168 were registered in them.

The increase in veteran registration in the seventeen evening schools has been spectacular. A few figures will highlight this development: February 21, 4797; February 28, 5601; May 10, 7626; Mid-November, 1500; and January, 2200. When enrollment began to mount at the end of October, extra teachers were provided. At the same time, the author was assigned to survey the seventeen schools and report on plans and possibilities for coping with a situation which could be expected to last for several years. In February, the increase of over 800 in a week led to his daytime assignment to the High School Division as coordinator of the veterans program.

WHERE THEY COME FROM. Veterans come to the schools from a variety of sources. While many are aware of evening schools, others go to the Service Centers, the first of which was established at 500 Park Avenue, or the Veterans' Administration for advice, and are directed to the schools. The Federal Council of Churches in Christ called to learn where a veteran, who wished to study for the ministry, might complete his secondary education and received copies of our printed material. In March, I spoke to a meeting sponsored by the Adult Education Council, an organization which advises veterans along with other adults to representatives of various groups interested in adult education. After the meeting, a number of people requested lists of schools and subjects taught because as a sideline of their particular activity they found themselves in touch with veterans needing educational direction. As a

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result of inquiries on their part and our searching out organizations which have contact with veterans, this office has a considerable file of agencies who now receive our information.

Some time in February, the separation officer in a nearby center telephoned for information which I was able to furnish. Since that time, several veterans from his post arrive each day to discuss their educational problems. They join the stream of those veterans who come to the Board of Education building as a logical source for such information. By February, they consumed one-third of the time of men with other pressing duties, and it was necessary to assign an individual to answer their questions.

The schools and other agencies have given the program publicity. Benjamin Franklin issued a leaflet to local draftboards containing information on its courses. Other schools followed suit. In another instance, New Utrecht, as early as the spring of 1945, had a meeting of friends and families of veterans to explain the facilities available for completion of their high school course. At least two schools increased their enrollments by accepting hospitalized sailors and soldiers at Sea Girt and Bronx Hospitals, Bay Ridge beginning its session forty-five minutes earlier to accommodate the sailors. In both instances, the Services furnish transportation. Publicity in local newspapers accounts for some registration. Every time the Bronx *Home News* publishes a story on Theodore Roosevelt, there is a jump in registration. Radio, too, contributes to publicity by means of broadcasts over WNYC. Since veterans are continuously being discharged, word of mouth reports on opportunities are very important. That reports are satisfactory is indicated by the average weekly increase of 200.

What Are Veterans Like?

THEY KNOW WHAT THEY WANT. The question most frequently asked about the program is: "What are the veterans like?" The consensus of opinion of those who work with them is: *They know what they want.* And what they want is a high school diploma, which represents an achievement, to be presented either to an employer or, in about sixty percent of the cases, to a college. In the few cases where they already have the diploma, it is a good grade in a course required by a college or a review of courses for subsequent study that they want. The diploma has assumed an importance which the discharge paper once had in their lives.

Explanation of this attitude is very simple. The men can be divided into two groups: those whose high school education was interrupted by entering the service; and, those who came to realize the value of a high school education when they were classified in the Armed Services or, more belatedly, when they applied for jobs after their separation. Although they sometimes err in their approach, there can be no doubt of their main objective. Out of this attitude, certain other reactions inevitably follow. They insist that classes start on time, object strenuously to unnecessary delay in taking the roll or performing other routine duties, and maintain excellent discipline. They set a high standard for teachers. A kind of skepticism, easily understood by anyone who has heard tales of Service experience, causes them to reserve judgment for a spell, but once their confidence is won they are loyal, cooperative, and amenable. They size people up accurately and realistically. In the schools, a high evaluation goes to anyone who will help them get their diplomas.

GREATER MATURITY. Veterans are more mature. Their maturity is not only that of men three or four years older than the average student. It is rather the maturity which comes with experiences few men years older than they have had. Values have come into their lives which might never have entered if they had just grown older. They are not a lost generation, but, as Max Lerner has said, a "postponed" generation anxious to make up for lost time.

ABOVE-AVERAGE. Veterans are above average. The difficulties of returning to school after years of completely different activity and going to evening school after a day's work act as barriers through which only the more able and courageous will break. Another basis for arriving at this conclusion is a small sampling which I have of results on the Army General Classification Test and those aptitude tests given by various agencies. The Army set 110 as its lowest qualifying score for officer candidate school. In the course of interviews with several hundred men who knew their score, I have never found one who received less than 110. Such a score would be well above the general average. Add to it the maturity which the men display, and the satisfaction of teachers with veterans is easily understood.

NOT SOMETHING FOR NOTHING. Another misconception

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or fear can also be easily disposed: *Veterans do not want something for nothing.* Of course, some do, but one does not have to serve his country for two to five years to develop that trait. They understand that the diploma must represent standards if it is to serve their purposes, and in most cases they are willing to meet those standards. There are a number of other points of view unfavorable to veterans, but these two are most commonly heard. Suffice it to say, veteran groups like all others contain individuals with a variety of commendable and reprehensible traits. To attribute to the main body faults of any individual is simply the old error of arguing from the specific to the general.

Problems

The return of these men and women to the schools created a number of problems. Facilities of the schools were strained and existing classes were packed. Arriving nightly in a continuous flow, veterans were assigned to classes which were far ahead of them as the term advanced. The average class consisted of groups of varying preparation. Backgrounds of individuals were diverse: some had completed much work in day school; others had a combination of day and evening schools; some had been to vocational schools and now wanted academic diplomas; still others had gone to school years ago and now wished to finish their studies; and, at the extremes were those who had not even finished elementary school and those who had finished high school but wished to take advanced or review courses to prepare for college.

Any discussion of the solutions or attempted solutions of problems cannot give a true picture of what happened. We could not take time out to consider the problem or experiment; the veterans were in attendance and we had to provide a workable solution as soon as possible or our failure would drive the veterans away. An accurate picture would show the following going on at the same time: veterans were registering, the curriculum was being developed, advisory systems were being organized, teachers were being assigned, requisitions for supplies were being met, and efforts were being made to reach veterans who might profit by the program.

WHO GOES WHERE? In an effort to ascertain their wishes, schools issued questionnaires to the veterans. Two results illustrate the difficulty of making decisions without adequate backgrounds and

how veterans erred in making their choices. They voted overwhelmingly against accelerated and all-veteran classes. As a result, most evening schools were organized on a basis of mixed veteran and non-veteran normal-pace classes. One large school, however, organized veteran classes and provided for acceleration. The very necessity of creating new classes in the middle of the term meant that veterans, as the only registering students, filled these classes. In many of these classes, acceleration was planned or just grew as intructors became aware of their students' capabilities. Textile High School organized its program for the new students and then observed that other veterans gradually joined the special groups. It must be pointed out that here, as elsewhere in the program, no pressure was brought to bear upon veterans to transfer to the new classes. These new classes, though, were obviously more successful than mixed classes. Three reasons explain veteran preference for an organization which was against their better interests: service accelerated courses were frequently so superficial that scant information was obtained; veterans feared a carryover of Service attitudes in all-veteran classes; they wished to become part of civilian life, and mixed classes seemed more normal than segregation. With these facts in mind: the success of all-veteran and accelerated classes wherever they existed, and the analysis of their reactions to such a program, it was decided to organize accelerated and segregated classes under competent teachers. In February, wherever numbers permitted as they did in the great majority of cases, such a schedule was used. The few who prefer assignment to normal classes receive it, but the core of the veteran program consists of veteran or preponderantly veteran classes.

ACCELERATED CLASSES. The course of study is so arranged veterans can find all academic and commercial subjects, if not in a given school, at least in one of the seventeen schools. According to the plan begun in November and fully developed in February, instruction is given in accelerated, tutorial, and regular classes. Accelerated classes are given in practically all two-term subjects, and, wherever numbers permit, are limited to veteran registration. Because of the continued registration, classes are filled up one at a time. Such a procedure gives statistically uneven class registers but promotes homogeneous groupings. Although veterans, once they hit their stride, move at a faster rate than non-veteran groups, it has

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been necessary to streamline these courses. Actually, experienced teachers, while noting some of the obvious defects of acceleration, acknowledge that it has been a lesson in the removal of much detail which has cluttered up the traditional syllabi. Furthermore, much time is saved because it is not necessary to engage in many activities which are useful to maintain adolescent interest but are superfluous with this group. Despite these efforts, some veterans do fall behind or become discouraged. Stuyvesant has organized regular classes for veterans in subjects which are being accelerated at that period. Veterans, who feel the pace is too rapid, can transfer to these classes. Tutorial classes take care of other problems which arise. It is noteworthy that acceleration is most successful in history and English. Although difficulties in mathematics and science are partly explainable by more difficult Regents examinations, there is no doubt that veterans bring greater familiarity to history and English.

TUTORIAL CLASSES. It is difficult to imagine a successful veteran program without tutorial classes. These are provided in mathematics, science, English, and history, in all the schools, and in more specific subjects in the larger schools. They serve several invaluable purposes. Entering veterans are assigned to them until they catch up with the classes. When veterans fall behind in accelerated classes, individual attention often straightens out their problems. Finally, when the term is well advanced, they are utilized as classes for incoming students. Local usages vary, but all veterans have access to teachers assigned to give individual attention. The groups vary from five to fifteen, depending upon the registration and needs of students. It is not an unusual sight to see the instructor helping a small group while others in groups of two or three pool their information to arrive at mastery of the subject.

REGULAR CLASSES. The third type of class is one in which the class goes at a normal pace, usually in a one-term subject. Wherever possible, all-veteran classes have been organized in these groups, but if numbers do not permit it or the veteran prefers a mixed group, non-veterans and veterans are assigned to a common period. The continued enrollment of veterans has operated to produce segregated classes whether or not the veteran wishes it.

ALERT TO CHANGING NEEDS. As a result of the influx of

this new group with new requirements, the evening school curriculum has taken on new aspects. The roster of classes includes many more in trigonometry, advanced and intermediate algebra, chemistry, and physics. No matter how teachers-in-charge attempt to anticipate requests, unusual circumstances arise, as when Theodore Roosevelt had to add a Latin class for veterans who intended to study law. In another case, when veterans learned that Benjamin Franklin offered courses in photography, the registration was so great that it was limited to veterans. Alert teachers learn special needs. A tutor at Benjamin Franklin discovered a veteran in a science tutoring group who wished to study air-conditioning, as distinguished from the more elementary refrigeration course, and since he had taught the subject in trade school, is now giving the veteran the course for which he looked throughout the city.

FLEXIBILITY. Flexibility is the chief requirement to meet requests. Teachers-in-charge and instructors do not think in terms of exceptions for there are too many. The most complex case involves day and evening school and supplementary instruction. One day in February, a veteran and his wife walked into the office. He had one desire: to get his diploma and matriculate in Texas A. and M. With the help of George Washington day and evening school, the following program was laid out. He attends both schools. His wife, a graduate of a college mathematics course, tutors him in those subjects, and he is refreshing his considerable knowledge of French to prepare for the Regents. As a result of all this activity, he should finish his course of study by the end of summer school. Another veteran is receiving instruction all evening in Spanish in an effort to satisfy a college entrance requirement. Two other veterans are taking concentrated mathematics and science courses at Theodore Roosevelt and Brooklyn Technical. In both these cases, the decision to permit the unusual acceleration was made after an interview in which it was learned that the very high scores on the Army General Classification Test were justified and backed up by an attitude which makes success probable.

The continued registration of veterans has required readjustments in the middle of the term. Incoming veterans could not enter existing classes or be tutored sufficiently to overtake them much before the end of the term. Double period classes were instituted. The instructors for these classes were obtained in three ways: new positions

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were added; since registers in non-veteran classes tend to fall at this time of the term, small classes were merged to release teachers for veteran classes; and tutoring and counselling periods were utilized. This last procedure is possible for several reasons: the greatest need for tutoring is with incoming students who will be assigned to these double periods. Since the classes will be devoted to individual instruction, other students in need of tutoring may still obtain it, and counselling has fallen off as registration lightened and can be cared for with less expenditure of time than in the first half of the term. These changes, however, do place an added responsibility on teachers-in-charge and other administrative personnel.

Pertinent Figures

The following statistical table shows the degree to which the evening schools have been influenced by veterans:

Classes in Evening High Schools, March 29, 1946

Total	1449
Veteran Classes	
Accelerated	230
Tutorial	94
Regular	62
Total	386
Mixed Veteran and Non-Veteran Classes	
Accelerated	114
Regular	763
Total	877
All Non-Veteran Classes	186

Out of 1449 classes, 386 classes are composed solely of veterans and 877 have some veterans, making a total of 1263 classes containing veterans. In addition, 59 periods are devoted to veteran guidance and 19 to grade advising, some of which are used for veterans. There are 61 administrative periods, but any observation will show that a high percentage of them is used to register and counsel veterans. Looking at it another way, we find that 344 accelerated classes have been organized, two-thirds of which have only veteran students.

Finally, the 94 tutorial classes are open only to veterans. Parenthetically, it is worth observing that more competent non-veteran students have profited by the presence of veterans to undertake more ambitious programs than a normal evening school course will permit. There can be no doubt that *the veteran third of the 20,000 evening school students is the center of evening school activity.*

THE JOB OF THE ADVISORY STAFF. Advisory systems had to be expanded to meet the new situation. Besides the sheer increase in numbers, the duties of the advisory staff multiplied. Veterans have the diverse backgrounds which have already been noted. In addition, the State Department of Education granted credit for basic training, and Service and United States Armed Forces Institute courses. Evaluating these courses required skill and much time. Another time-consuming element is the interview with the veteran. These men must be treated more tactfully than other groups. The very size and complication of the Armed Forces in addition to the subordination of all other considerations to the essential one creating a military machine caused much, to resort to the more common terms, "passing the buck" and giving "the run-around". Veterans object to evidence of it now, when they feel that their complaints against it will be heard. If they do not object, they drop out of school. In either case, advisers give them more time than might ordinarily be required. Earlier in this discussion, I referred to the premium which veterans place upon a diploma. Consequently, there is an urgency which prompts them to undertake too ambitious programs. Good advisers must succeed in cutting down these impossible plans without discouraging the men. Another reason for long and frequent interviews is that, despite their maturity and a certain observable sense of responsibility, decisions have been made for these men. They are now in a transition period, during which it is essential that someone be available to remind them of their objectives and to replace peremptory commands with guidance. At Benjamin Franklin, the veteran adviser asks teachers for monthly reports on their progress and then arranges conferences with failing or faltering students. All of these are aimed at one thing: to win the confidence of the men so as to guide them to stand on their own.

Counselling inevitably is extended to advice on college information on the G. I. Bill, and a miscellaneous assortment of advice and information. Wherever possible, schools register the men in libraries

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where there are college catalogues for perusal by veterans awaiting their turn. With the pasasge of time, most advisers collect an amazing amount of information on individual college requirements. A large number are experts on the G. I. Bill. Advisers and clubs have collected and dispensed much valuable information. For instance, Long Island City distributed a list of colleges in New York State; Washington Irving gave men a list of agencies which are available for special services to veterans; the same school is fortunate to have a man in attendance who works at the Veterans Administration and takes pertinent questions back to headquarters for answers; Stuyvesant compiled a list of requirements for engineering colleges. Almost all advisers have lists of agencies which give aptitude tests, lists which are in considerable demand by men who know the Service system of classification by objective examination. Again, these activities require well-informed and imaginative staffs of advisers.

REGISTRATION AND CHECK-UP. Although practices in registration and check-up of veterans vary, the following is more or less typical. When the veteran enters a school, he fillls out a questionnaire giving his background and plans. He then talks to the counsellors, and, if he does not have a transcript of his record and most men do not, he is given a tentative program, based on what he remembers of his school work and his training in the Service. No school asks him to go home and await arrival of his transcript; all schools encourage him to register and get started immediately. At the same time, the adviser sends for a transcript of his record. As soon as this transcript arrives, there is another and usually definitive, so far as programming is concerned, interview. At this time, final credit is given to credits for training and study in the Services. These check-up interviews were particularly important this winter, for registration was done at such speed that mistakes were inevitable. By now, all advisers are careful to give men a list of subjects which they need to complete their work. In the early days of the program, a standard veteran complaint was absence of such lists. The final examination of records takes place when veterans are up for graduation.

THE QUALITY OF THE COUNSELLORS. The position of counsellor requires men of interest and ability. Demands are made on their time for attention which less patient personnel would dismiss with annoyance. The responsibility for their position is great, for they are the men who make the initial impression upon the veteran. Efforts have been made to secure enough of them to insure more than adequate attention. Theodore Roosevelt has two full time counsellors for its 1472 veterans; Brooklyn Technical has one full time adviser for 795 men. All schools have men on duty each period, although the teacher-in-charge often has to slight some other duty to perform the task himself. Examples of devotion to the men are many. Two advisers at Washington Irving went to that school, in the summer of 1945, one day a week without pay, to answer inquiries. At another school, the adviser gave up day work to devote full time to the veterans. In all schools, requests for transcripts and other items requiring clerical work have greatly burdened the advisory and clerical staffs. While all worthwhile programs tend to draw upon our personal time, an undue burden has been placed upon people whose sense of responsibility to veterans has caused them to give lavishly of their time.

TEACHING HINTS. Teachers who instruct veterans will do well to remember that they are teaching adults and individuals who frequently have little time for study. In connection with the first point, the following anecdote is significant. A group of veterans were meeting in one of the schools to discuss their complaints. In general, these centered on evidence that teachers were insisting on standards of notebook and other work more applicable to teen-agers. Finally, one veteran spoke up. *"These teachers,"* he said, *"are all right. You guys just have to give them time to get used to us."* He was right, for experienced teachers tend to carry over into this adult atmosphere habits formed in teaching adolescents. *Sometimes, absent-mindedness probably plays its part, as when a day school teacher handed a veteran his report card with the order to have it signed.* Disconcertingly, he asked, *"Who signs it—my mother, wife, or daughter?"* The other difficulty, which takes more time to correct, is to *teach with a large share of the class unprepared.* Lessons must be planned so that the facts are straightened out for the men, for in many cases it is simply impossible for them to prepare regularly. Review books, outlines, board work, all help. Assignments may be made for weekends, and often are done at that time. Part of the period can be used as a study period. Development of devices to cope with the situation takes time, but the result is gratifying.

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EVENING AND DAYTIME CLASSES COMPARED. There are several striking differences between good classes in the evening and daytime. The most striking is *the absence of the artificial motivation which is so prevalent in day school work*, no matter how good the class. These men and women have a more valid motivation: to finish the work and go on to more important things. They come to attention when the bell rings, and they maintain attention until the end of the period. Since they are adult, pupil-teacher relations are on a more informal basis; yet, there is frequently more respect for the teacher than in the daytime. In the few instances, where men did not come to order, I was startled to see other veterans call them down. If something humorous arises, the laughter is free, but it *does* end. On a more important level, *classroom discussion is frequently impressive*. One teacher remarked that *it is teaching high school courses on a college level*. In science classes, the not inconsiderable body of information of Service technicians frequently serves as explanatory material.

THE SUCCESSFUL TEACHER. Successful teachers have three characteristics in common: they know their subjects, have the ability to impart their information and have a broad sympathy and understanding for veterans. Other qualifications may help, but they are just dessert. Questions frequently arise about teachers who are veterans and teachers who are women. In my trips to the schools, I have talked to thousands of men. Not one has ever condemned a male teacher because he is not a veteran. Since I am a veteran, there is no need to be tactful; and, certainly, they are frank enough in voicing other criticisms. One of the most successful advisers is a non-veteran at New Lots Evening High School. On the other hand, one cannot generalize on the question of women teachers. It is probable that if these veterans were allowed to choose in advance, they would select men teachers. If for no other reason, they are apt to slip into familiar language in the classroom. But, given a woman teacher with the characteristics which I mentioned above, they maintain their attendance. For example, during this term, a woman teacher was appointed to a junior high school. While awaiting her exemption by the Board of Education, the school replaced her with a substitute teacher. Immediately, without the knowledge of the teacher-in-charge, a petition was forwarded to Superintendent Wade requesting her to return to the classroom.

MATHEMATICS AND SCIENCE DEMANDS. The peculiar demands of veterans placed a great strain upon the mathematics and science departments. As registration in mathematics classes grew, new positions were secured. A point was reached where emergency examinations were given to inexperienced teachers. This was a dangerous expedient, for acceleration requires experienced teachers. Had the efforts of organizations opposed to suspension of the dual job law succeeded, the veteran training program would have been seriously harmed if not wrecked; fortunately; suspension went through and we were able to fill these positions, but not until several classes remained uncovered or inadequately covered at the end of March. Science, too, suffered from the unusual expansion in number of classes. Resignation of a science teacher meant an evening spent telephoning prospective teachers. In this connection, one teacher-in-charge made nearly fifty calls to replace one teacher. In other subjects, the supply of teachers, if no selectivity is applied, is adequate. *The slight interest of veterans in commercial subjects has put little strain on the staffs.*

EXPANDED STAFFS. Increasing registration has been met with expanding staffs of experienced teachers. In October, fifty positions were created. (A *position* means a three-period assignment.) Subsequently, in January, seventy-five were added. By May, fifty-five more had been added. All told, 180 positions or 540 periods had been made available for teaching, tutoring, and counselling veterans. Although non-veteran registration has increased too, other positions, such as those normally used for administration, have been diverted to veteran use. The result has been a program in which class sizes in the main have been adequate, although occasionally large. Experienced teachers were permitted exemptions under the dual job law for the purpose of teaching veterans. Experienced substitutes were transferred to veteran classes. Until the February increase in registration, veteran classes were taught by experienced and able teachers. Any body who could teach had to be brought in to cover classes before suspension of the dual job law, but thereafter a noticeable improvement took place.

EXTRACURRICULAR ACTIVITIES. Although veterans have an aversion to fire drills and anything else which takes time from their work, they do engage in some extracurricular activities. Theo-

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dore Roosevelt has led the way with a veterans' club and swimming and baseball team. Other schools have organized clubs or assemblies to bring veterans together, for, among other reasons, the numbers are so large that a general meeting is the only way to reach all veterans. Outside speakers discuss veteran problems. I have spoken at several of these meetings and must remark, parenthetically, that nowhere in the school system will you see such rigid attention during the playing of the national anthem. Questions cluster around three topics: the G. I. Bill of Rights, how to get to college, and plans for future evening high schools. In addition, veterans contribute to school papers. At Bay Ridge, veterans took charge of the bond drive last fall. *The gold medal awarded by a day school to the best student in the evening school was won by an ex-Wac, who took her Regents examinations in the maternity ward of an Army hospital.* With regard to graduation, Theodore Roosevelt is making large plans to graduate some 300 veterans in June. It should be one extracurricular ceremony in which veterans will wholeheartedly cooperate.

THE FUNCTION OF THE COORDINATOR. The position of coordinator has four main phases: reaching the veterans and observing the program by means of nightly visits to the schools; coordinating activities of the schools and acting as a clearing house for useful ideas; answering inquiries made in person, by mail, or telephone, and maintaining relations with agencies which advise veterans. At the schools, meetings are held with veterans to find out what they want. Despite the constant attention of teachers-in-charge, who as a group have made a success of the program and account in large part for the numbers involved, the complaints are usually of a petty nature. So far, no complaints have arisen which could not be remedied immediately. These trips also serve as an opportunity to observe new procedures, discuss problems with the teachers-in-charge, and pass among the seventeen schools methods and techniques which might otherwise not be publicized. For instance, as a result of the survey made in November and December many worthwhile ideas were made common property. At the same time, procedures in routine matters have been standardized.

At the office, the coordinator's post serves as a channel through which requests can pass and information on policy can be obtained. During the feverish rise in registration during February and early

March, teachers-in-charge telephoned daily reports on their registrations and needs. These reports were consolidated and submitted to the superintendents in charge for allottment of new positions. It was an active period, but, since we were able to keep pace with the changing situation, exhilarating. During these times, the central office was helpful in assignment of teachers. Previously, teachers-in-charge filled positions with applicants who had made application to them. With the shortage of teachers, the central office had the lists of available substitute and regular teachers with which to supply administrators. Unfortunately, exemptions had to await action by the Board of Education and experienced teachers were frequently passed over for people immediately available. These lists of prospective teachers were available to teachers-in-charge for examination, when they have time to plan for future expansion. Frequently, questions of policy can be decided. With one individual responsible for maintaining such information, local administrative personnel can get their answers without repetition of questions to officials whose time is subject to other pressures.

An important aspect of a coordinator's position is answering inquiries made over the telephone, through the mail, or in person. A daytime agency to which to apply in person or by telephone is valuable since most of the evening schools do not open before 7:00 P.M. Telephone calls often lead to personal calls. Father and relatives call up, and then come with the veteran for an interview. Personal interviews can lead to actions which seem little related to the original request; for instance, writing a letter for a veteran of World War I whose handwriting is completely illegible. Another case demonstrates the activity and the degree of cooperation necessary to settle questions. A veteran who attended a Negro boarding school in North Carolina called to get help in obtaining his record. The teacher-in-charge of Harlem Evening High School made calls to New Jersey to get information from an authority on such schools. We have written several letters in attempts to get cooperation from school authorities in North Carolina. The normal procedure for veterans who wish evaluation of their records is to discuss their backgrounds and the schools which they might attend. We then give them a note to the veteran adviser in the nearest evening school. Normally, they do not have their records, and we avoid committing local authorities as to courses and time needed for graduation.

The coordinator's office has increasing relationships with outside

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agencies which advise veterans. The list grows through inquiries and our searching them out. Such organizations as the Veterans Administration have been helpful. On our part, we are able to make one request for information and then distribute it to the seventeen schools, thereby saving effort all around. To facilitate the work of these organizations, a comprehensive list of subjects taught in all the evening schools was distributed to the known agencies in February. While we were awaiting the new Directory of Evening Schools, we made available lists of teachers-in-charge of evening schools and veteran rights. Since the fact that veterans may register at any time needs constant publicizing, we are sending the new directory, which contains this and other pertinent information, to draft boards for distribution to returning veterans. The extent to which organizations provide special attention to veterans becomes evident when it is pointed out that 500 of these lists have gone out, mostly to counsellors in such organizations.

Plans For The Future

In the midst of all this activity, plans for future training have been made. These plans are always subject to change because no total picture can ever be obtained; for example, last December, the Veterans Administration gave us figures of prospective discharges for the following six months. In January, all these figures were completely revised. Nevertheless, extensive plans are being made for summer day and evening schools. Eleven day schools with veteran courses and five evening schools will be organized. Questionnaires have been issued to veterans attending the evening schools requesting information on which of the evening schools for veterans they will attend and what subjects they will want. These five schools, one in each borough, will operate for eight weeks, five nights a week, from 7:00 to 9:40 P.M., and will be limited to veterans. There will be two eighty-minute periods in the evening and three eighty-minute periods in the day time. As a time-saving device, registration will begin in June in their present evening high school. Meetings of prospective teachers will be held to provide for an exchange of ideas on methods and techniques which have been developed during the last and present term. Fortunately, the present organization of evening high schools is so successful that fall plans will be limited to refinement of details of present organization, routine, and instruction.

Is The Program Working?

MARKS AND ATTENDANCE. Evaluation of the success of the program can be arrived at by only two objective tests: attendance and results on the Regents examination, and the subjective reaction of men. On the basis of imperfect records, drop-outs in the fall term reached twenty percent which compared favorably with the more than thirty percent for non-veterans. This term, drop-outs are below the twenty percent figure, in one school being ten percent. *The Regents results in January showed eighty-three percent of the veterans passing.* History and English had higher percentages than mathematics and science, a result comparable to the day schools. Numbers in the fall were smaller and the program was being organized; results this June will be a much more valid test.

THE VETERAN SAYS. On the subjective side, there are veteran comments, expressing approval of what they find. While recognizing the subjective nature of this reaction, we can accept the validity of statements of men returning again this term, who say that the present organization is superior to that of last fall. There are the men attending our schools while still in the Service who ask permission to come back when they are discharged. *There is the case of a veteran who attended Bay Ridge High School and after his discharge gave up a sixty-dollar-a-week job in a large city to return.* Another subjective test is the reaction which I have had from the men. They have frequently been frank in their criticisms, and it is noteworthy that these criticisms have declined with the beginning of this term.

My position in the program has been a central one. On the one side, I have had contact with veterans, their advisers, teachers and the teachers-in-charge of the program; on the other, I have had contact with authorities in the High School Division. Success of the program depended on ascertaining the legitimate demands of the veterans as gleaned in discussions and observations of those in contact with them and then being given the support of authorities in setting up devices and procedures to satisfy these demands. Throughout, to use an Army term, the chain of command, there has been cooperation, imagination, and ingenuity which such a flexible program requires. Without the intelligent and sympathetic and concentrated interest of all personnel, the program would have collapsed. We would, then, have had no veterans and no veteran problem in

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our evening schools. As it is, we have 7626 men and women who are receiving great help and encouragement in this, their initial readjustment to civilian life.

I should like to turn from the detailed account of the veterans' program to the larger issue involved. Much talk is heard on the relation of veteran readjustment to democracy. In the veteran program, there has been little discussion of democracy; yet a community has recognized its responsibility to a large group. I like to think that we have given these men and women a lesson in the fact that democracy can satisfy their legitimate requests. It has taken much time and effort of all people involved, but if it serves the purpose of helping these thousands, the New York schools have done their share to fulfill their responsibility to veterans and democracy alike.

The Veterans' Counselor and the Schools

GEORGE F. PIGOTT*

Effective educational and vocational guidance is dependent not only upon the psychological savoir-faire of the counselor but also upon the immediate availability of accurate, complete, worthwhile, up-to-the-minute information in the fields of training facilities and occupational opportunities.

A veteran's counselor must be conversant, for instance, with academic branches and automobile mechanics, with bartending and brewing, with building construction and business machines, with ceramics and credit, with dietetics and dramatic arts, with embalming and etching, to name but a few areas. What is more, he must know schools—location, hours of instruction, number of sessions, registration, openings, seasonal vocations, the efficacy of the staff, the efficiency of instruction, placement services, and other details.

VISITS TO SCHOOLS. In order to insure the best service for veterans, the New York City Board of Education's Unit for Educational Counseling for Veterans is continually carrying out a program of school and industrial visitations by the teacher-counselors.

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Visits are made both to private schools and Board of Education schools. Germane information garnered through observations and inquiries during such visits is embodied in a written survey, copies of which are distributed to each of the counselors for study and appraisal. A conference period once a week allows for a round-table discussion of the findings submitted by each school-visiting counselor.

It should be noted that school and industrial visitations are primarily to afford an overall picture of the institutions inspected. They are supplemental to the daily correspondence and hourly telephone calls which are responsible for the accumulation of data upon which the counselors are dependent for up-to-date information.

TRADE CENTERS. Over and above the guidance facilities offered by the Board of Education at the Veterans' Service Center, 500 Park Avenue, Manhattan, and a similar unit at 105 Court Street, Brooklyn, many other opportunities are afforded the veteran by the Board of Education of the City of New York.

Trade Centers at which returning veterans may receive specialized training have been organized by the Board. At these centers, instruction in vocational fields is made available to the veteran through the cooperation of the Board of Education with the Veterans' Administration.

Day and evening sessions are held at some of the Trade Centers while at others one schedule, day or evening, is in force.

Among the Centers operating are The Manhattan Trades Center, Straubenmuller Textile Evening Trade School, Central Commercial Evening High School, Central Needle Trades Evening High School, Samuel Gompers Evening Trade School, Brooklyn High School for Automotive Trades, Food Trades Vocational High School and Brooklyn High School for Specialty Trades (Annex).

THE TRADE PROGRAM. Would the veteran choose to be a butcher? Our Trade Centers will prepare him. Perhaps he would prefer to be a dental mechanic. Our Trade Centers will give him the necessary practice and direction. Maybe the veteran has the fur industry in mind. Our Trade Centers will meet his needs. Indeed, the Board of Education has shown profound foresight in preparing for the requisites of our servicemen. The following is a list of many of the subjects taught at our Centers: Radio Service

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and Repair, Radio Technology, Electrical Installation and Practice, Refrigeration, Upholstery, Oil Burner Service and Repair, Press Work (Printing), Linotype Operation, Machine Shop Practice, Sheet Metalwork, Wood Turning and Joinery, Cotton Converting, Woolen and Worsted Operation, General Textile Fields, Rayon Industry, Garment Trades, Mechanical Drafting, Auto Mechanics, Meat Merchandising, Food Inspection, Baking, Cooking, Watch Repairing, Plumbing, Fur Cutting and Operating, Shoe Design and Manufacturing, Ladies' Garments (Pattern Making and Cutting), Men's Tailoring (Garment Making and Cutting), Power Machine Operating, and Sewing Machine Repair.

THE ACADEMIC PROGRAM. Mr. Henry Shafer, Teacher-in-Charge of the Veterans' Program for Evening Academic Schools, has been most sedulous in cataloging, throughout the evening high schools, every academic subject ordinarily attainable by the regular high school student. He has placed these studies at the disposal of the veteran. In fact he has seen fit to have these courses accelerated for the veteran.

In many instances our day-time academic high schools have opened their doors to those who fought to keep those doors open.

THE BOARD AND THE VETERAN. The Board of Education of the City of New York appreciates what the boys and girls in our armed forces have performed at great sacrifice. The Board is playing fair with the veteran.

An Interest Questionnaire For Veterans

ISIDOR BOGEN*

A significant percentage of the requests for aid made at the Board of Education office of the New York City Veterans' Service has been in connection with choosing a course of study. This is usually a more complex problem than that presented by the selection of a school once the desired curriculum has been determined. Complicating the situation still further is the fact that the social service counseling and testing facilities in the metropolitan area have de-

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veloped long waiting lists. This practically denies the use of their facilities to anyone desiring prompt consideration of his problems.

INTEREST-QUESTIONNAIRE COMMITTEE. Improvement of our service in this sector has been a frequent topic of discussion at many of the counselors' professional conferences. Subsequently, I was appointed chairman of a committee composed of Mr. Brenner, Mr. Weiser, and myself to develop an interest questionnaire to fit our needs. Continually we submitted our work for criticism and modification to other members of the staff.

OBJECTIVES AND PROCEDURE. In developing the questionnaire the Committee thought particularly of the following three situations:

1. Where the veteran directly appeals for help in choosing an area of study.
2. Where the veteran's previous experiences and education differ markedly from his tentative choice of a field of training.
3. Where the veteran requests training in one of the more popular trades and indicates that such choice is based on nothing more substantial than that "someone said that it is a good field."

We intended to develop a form to be used in the counseling process, as an additional tool. Hence, we planned to develop a questionnaire, such that the over-all tendency of the replies could be gathered at a glance. In addition, to meet the needs of the latter two groups of veterans mentioned above, we decided to word the questions so as to have veterans refer back to actual past experiences, rather than to dreams or wishful thinking. Thus they were of the "Did-you-do" variety, rather than the, "Would-you-like-to-do" type.

The Committee studied many tests, inventories, and questionnaires in the field of determination of educational interest, and finally decided that it would be necessary to develop a new one for our purposes.

FORMS DEVELOPED. Two sheets were evolved. The first, the one completed by the veteran, presents him with a minimum number of simple questions to be answered by checks in one of three columns. The queries are separated into unlabeled groups, each corresponding to an occupational area, and are worded in such manner that positive answers indicate preferences in that area. A typical

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question in the mechanical and manual area is *"Do you do any repairs to your own electric lamps, irons, fans, radios, or wiring?"* In the creative group of inquiries, *"Did you write or draw for a school or service unit newspaper, or entertain at amateur or service shows?"* might serve to indicate the type of question used.

The second sheet, to be considered together by the veteran and counselor after completion of the first, lists the fields corresponding to each group of questions, together with the more popular positions within each field. When the two sheets are placed side by side, so that the first group of one is aligned with the first group of the other, then all sets of questions will appear next to their corresponding field titles. Those areas of work most preferred by the veteran can then be determined. The occupational fields used are: Persuasive, Clerical and Kindred, Creative, Mechanical and Manual, Scientific, Computational, and Managerial.

Answers to individual queries are likewise of importance in aiding the veteran to analyze his work problems.

EXPERIMENTAL USE. In the short interval since its composition, the questionnaire has been used in a small number of situations. In each, it served to disclose much of the veteran's background pertinent to the work problem. Thus, it better equipped the counselor to help the veteran know himself. It is too early to determine the validity of any conclusions drawn from its use, but it is hoped that as more cases accumulate, follow-ups will give information in this respect. Tryouts on several persons well known to the committee have shown results markedly coincident with tendencies shown in everyday life. When I took the test, the replies correlated very well with those previously obtained on a Kuder Preference Inventory.

It is our hope that we have contributed to a significant extent toward the solution of that most important problem of the day, the readjustment of the homecoming veteran.

Interviewing Veterans

ESTHER M. PASTER*

We have been guided by two fundamental ideas in our work with the veteran; namely, that we must try to understand the veteran's needs in terms of educational and vocational guidance, and secondly, that we must attempt to interpret these needs constructively, in the light of each veteran's abilities, interests and objectives. Never for one moment are we to lose sight of the individual before us; each with his own motives, desires and plans. How are we to get at this wealth of material in one contact with the veteran? Obviously, the answer lies in the success of our interview techniques. The interview has to serve two purposes—first, as a source for pertinent information and factual data and, second, as a source for the subsurface feelings, opinions and attitudes of the veteran.

Too often mere information relating to the veteran's age, marital status, education and job experience (both military and civilian) proves inadequate for getting at the core of the problem. It is much more helpful in evaluating the problem to permit a spontaneous outpouring of poorly articulated motives and even confused aims and strivings. In this atmosphere of exchange we can hope to help the veteran direct himself to his objective. "Why do you want to study accounting or change to auto mechanics?"—so typical a question will very often set some kindling wood afire and give the counselor an insight into the long-concealed desires of the veteran.

THE SINGLE-CONTACT INTERVIEW. The interview, then, contains sufficient detailed factual data, but is nevertheless flexible enough to permit a free and spontaneous flow of questions, comments, expression of interests, plans and views. This short or single-contact interview form can be quite effective in many instances. When the job experiences, training, interests and present wishes of the veteran follow in a direct line of continuity, we need not probe into the "second level of contact." Even in cases of a break in the continuity (provided that there is some consistency of choice) the simple and direct approach is adequate. But when a veteran shows indecision, uncertainty, and general confusion coupled with an underlying anxiety, then we are put to the test. It may be necessary to probe more deeply into the half-expressed motives, conflicts and discrepancies between goal and abilities. Therein lies the need for

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greater insight and more refined skills of analysis for the counselor. He must be able to analyze the problem in terms of emphasis, relevancy of emotional and personal factors, degree of family or social pressure, discrepancy between the goal set up and one's abilities and preparation.

Let us examine these types a little more closely. Veteran A, aged 36, was a baker in civilian life, continued as one in the army, and now would like to specialize in cake decorating or even food preparation. It is quite clear here that a simple referral can be made without too much probing. Similarly, Veteran B, 19, a baker in civilian life, classified as baker in the army, for many years had followed photography as a very special hobby, and now wishes to pursue photography professionally. Here, too, we can follow his train of thinking quite readily. Now let us look at Veteran C and the variations encountered there. One, a truck driver, both in the army and prior to induction, now asks for a change of occupation—radio servicing. Another, a salesman, now asks for a "trade" —whatever is available. Still another, without any background of job experiences, wants to learn a trade or perhaps go on to college.

CASE CONSULTATION PERIODS. The number of the latter type has been on the increase and has pressed us for additional techniques to improve our interviews and counseling. We felt the need for a more searching analysis of problem cases—so many veterans now wanted to be "told what to do." "Why don't you suggest a field?" "I'm not sure I know what to do." We had to learn to ask many more questions—not of the veteran, to be sure, but of ourselves. Are we getting at the nature of the problem facing the veteran? How can we be of the greatest assistance to him? We did develop a technique which proved of great help to us in improving our interviews; namely, a consultation period in which we discuss and analyze those cases that have challenged our resourcefulness. We meet once a month, in groups of four, informally, to take up individual cases, point out significant factors, evaluate these factors, get at the nature of the problem, define our limitations as counselors, make referrals and suggest possible methods of follow-up. Let us sit in with this group and follow the proceedings in the case of Rocco C.

A TYPICAL PROBLEM. Rocco C., a veteran with two years of

service, mainly overseas, came to us for guidance. He wanted us "to tell him what to do." During the interview he described himself as a "fellow who never took anything seriously, liked to have a good time, and go out a great deal."

Rocco, now 26 years old, had been discharged from the army in April, 1945—his present visit is almost one year after discharge. He had been given a medical discharge (combat fatigue) and is receiving a 50% disability pension. In the early months after his discharge he had been treated by a psychiatrist, but now, for about four months, had not needed any treatment. This visit, he said, was the result of much thinking about schooling and training for a job. The question as to what kind of training he wanted brought forth expressions of uncertainty and confusion even to the point of helplessness.

His educational background revealed only one year of high school or, more exactly, junior high school. He had left school so early because of family pressure. (Rocco was the youngest of six—the girls of the family were married.) His job experiences were scattered and short-lived in each case, ranging from shipping clerk, stock boy to garage attendant and salesman.

GROUP DISCUSSIONS. This material was presented to the group by the leader, who added, from time to time, such relevant factors as seemed necessary for the elucidation of the problems. "Do we have enough factual information about the veteran thus far? We know his age, marital status, education, job experiences; something about his family background and an inkling of his social life. What about his interests, hobbies, likes and dislikes?" During the interview the veteran had spoken of his "secret ambition" to become a songwriter or script writer. He had nursed this hope for many years—ever since his 14th birthday. He had a good voice and played the guitar. "What about a trade?" "Oh—I'll get myself dirty and look like a mess." (He was nicely dressed, well-groomed, spoke softly and was generally conscious of his appearance, though he did have enough insight to admit personal vanity). "Would the use of the interest form reveal any clues?" Let us look at the score:—a high degree of interest in such work which entailed initiative, quick responses and cooperation with others. The lowest interest-level was in the direction of computational and mechanical

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work. Rocco chuckled when he read the question, "Are you more interested in being happy in your work than in making money?"

EVALUATION. This brings us to the completion of the first half of our group discussion, with the summing up of the data on the informational and factual level. The second half deals with the evaluation of our data in order to arrive at the core of the problem. "Is the primary need here one of economic security, or is it rather the choice of a field that would at the same time be a release for his emotional tensions?" "Or is it that type of tension that grows out of the discrepancy between the goal he set up for himself and his own limited preparation?" "Possibly it is a combination of all these factors?" "How far, then, are we legitimately qualified to answer these very basic questions?" We know that he is receiving a 50% pension and thus may be eligible for P.L.16, under the direct supervision of the Veterans' Administration. Then, we can refer him to the Personal Consultants at the Center for a more intensive study of his personal and emotional difficulties. Yet we, too, have to fulfill our obligation to the veteran who has turned to us for advice. We can help him explore the field of his choice, (in this case the broad field of advertising) the requirements of the field, length of training and relevant vocational and educational information. We can avail ourselves of the community resources (panels, agencies, group tests, free courses, etc.) for additional referrals.

Thus, we see how this technique of case-consultation has given us an opportunity for sincere and cooperative pooling of experiences and insight so that we may become more aware of our obligations to the veteran and of our need for ever-growing maturity as counselors.

Counseling Veterans

CARL LIGGIO*

From May 1, 1945 to May 4, 1946, 28,045 veterans received information and advice on trade and academic schools from the educational counseling unit at the New York City Veterans Service Center, 500 Park Avenue. This counseling unit and the one at the recently organized Brooklyn Veterans Service Center of 105 Court Street

* Administrator, Educational Counseling Service for Veterans.

were set up through the New York City Board of Education Special Committee on Veterans and Reconversion Training of which Mr. Anthony Campagna, one of the commissioners, is chairman. These two organizations function as cooperating agencies at the New York City Veterans Service Centers.

The Board of Education is only one of several city, state, and federal agencies located at the Centers. Some of the other agencies are the Department of Health, Board of Higher Education, Library Service, Civil Service, United States Employment Service and the New York State Division of Placement and Unemployment Insurance. All the city agencies come under the direction of a coordinator, representing the City of New York, who serves as Associate Director of the Center. The policies followed in the Centers are set up by the New York Veterans Service Committee composed of the broadest community representation under the chairmanship of Mrs. Anna M. Rosenberg. A Director, appointed by the Committee, is responsible for the integration and coordination of all agencies operating as a part of the Centers.

Aided by the counseling offered, the veteran is enabled to make a wiser use of his educational benefits under Public Law 346 and to make an intelligent selection of a school where he may obtain training.

THE STAFF. Beginning with one counselor, the educational counseling service at 500 Park Avenue grew to twenty-six counselors; six of these were recently assigned to the Brooklyn Veterans Service Center. The counselors are regularly appointed teachers of the Board of Education and come from different divisions. There are academic teachers of day high schools, academic teachers of day vocational schools, industrial shop teachers, special teachers and elementary school teachers.

Since this is a program for veterans, counselors who are veterans are preferred. All have had courses or experience in counseling and handling adult personnel. All counselors participate in a training program which was instituted for them. In addition to the regular counseling work, some counselors are carrying additional assignments, such as statistical studies, collation of information on approved trade and academic schools, and liaison with other agencies in the Center and with the community.

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RESOURCES AND TOOLS. Counseling is only as effective as the tools and educational resources available to counselors. These tools and resources include interview forms, interest questionnaires, directories of schools and social agencies, school catalogs, occupational studies, labor market analyses and community surveys.

A copy of the interview form in use is shown below. The extent to which this form is completed depends upon the number of veterans who have to be interviewed in one day. The amount of information which is given to the veteran during the interview depends upon the number of counselors, the time available, and the veteran's needs. The interest questionnaire, which can be used in the interview, is discussed later in this issue.

Since so many schools are continually being approved by the State Education Department, revisions must be made constantly to the school directory. The present directory, now about three months old, is undergoing such revision. The information in the directory is catalogued according to subjects; schools are enumerated under each subject. For example, auto mechanics would list Brooklyn Automotive High School, Brooklyn Trade Center, Brooklyn YMCA, New York YMCA and the New York Trade School; glass blowing, Egani School; business administration, other schools; and refrigeration, still other schools.

Under each school there is some detailed information, such as:

Name of School
Director of School
Address
Telephone Number
Men or Women Admitted or Both
Brief Description of Course
Length of Course
Cost of Course
Day or Evening
Books
Hours
Tools
Requirements for Admission

Additional information about schools and their requirements is contained in the catalogs of all approved schools. Individual sets of catalogs are distributed to each counselor, and additional sets are arranged alphabetically in centrally located files according to the school title and also according to the subjects offered.

Frequent reports are issued to counselors on employment opportunities and the labor market. These reports are culled from information received through the United States Employment Service, the War Manpower Commission, and other agencies interested in the veteran.

Community agencies providing services to veterans other than school instruction are also listed and catalogued for the counselors. These services may be informational, testing or counseling; if counseling, they may be related to health, business, or the job. There are business panels listed by the New York City Veterans Service Center and the New York Board of Trade, to which veterans may go.

An office library, in addition to the library at the Center, has been organized for the counselors. It contains books and magazines on education, industry, and guidance. It also contains newspaper clippings, reports, and a Guide for Counselors written by the Administrator.

TRAINING COUNSELORS. Constant training for counselors is necessary. This is so, not merely to provide them with tools and information, but also to give them techniques and methods in the use of such tools. There are practice periods, observation periods, and case consultation periods. Counselors gather together at regular intervals in groups of three or four to discuss difficult situations presented by veterans. New counselors are given an indoctrination course and practice under the supervision of more experienced counselors.

At the week conferences, discussion and information cover methods and techniques of interviewing and advising, approved trade and academic schools, employment possibilities, labor market trends and reports from USES and the War Manpower Commission, trends in demands for courses, benefits and laws for veterans, visits to schools and industries, and new books.

On Wednesday evenings, an in-service course is given to all counselors. The course covers the philosophy, practices and principles of guidance, the use of the *Dictionary of Occupational Titles* and other occupational data, private counseling agencies, testing, community resources, eduactional and vocational problems facing veterans, approved school directories, occupational trends, and the training and occupational provision of the Act of 1944.

Occupational studies are constantly being written by each counselor

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and mimeographed for all counselors. The studies cover all subjects requested by veterans on the trade and secondary academic level. In these studies, the following topics are covered: a brief description of the occupation, condition of work, hours, wages, educational requirements, union requirements, opportunities for employment, and geographic peculiarities. Thus, the counselor is in a better position to provide the veteran with sufficient data upon which he can base a decision in the selection of a school or schools.

It has also been felt that visits to public schools, private schools and industrial establishments would give counselors a broader outlook for counseling and also prevent academic provincialism. Each counselor reports on his visit so that the others may profit from his experience. No school at the moment has been visited by more than two counselors and there are about 300 schools in New York City to visit. Every effort has been made to make this program both educational and practical. After such visits and such reports, counselors feel they have a better command of the information about the school.

RESEARCH STUDIES. Studies are continually being made of the veteran, of his desires, and of the service offered by the educational counseling unit. These studies are made by the counseling staff from data on interview forms. Many of the studies have been of value both to the veterans and to the counselors. From the reports, the veteran has obtained a picture of the competition he must sustain to succeed and the counselor learns what the majority of veterans are thinking and doing.

These studies have shown the frequency of the requests for courses, kinds of institutions to which referrals are made, age groupings, and educational plans as compared to past experiences. The most frequent courses requested by veterans are auto mechanics, refrigeration, radio, and electricity. Studies also show that the largest number of veterans call between the hours of ten and three. Mondays and Tuesdays are usually the days on which the volume of veterans seeking advice is greatest. Data obtained from a number of counselors have shown that approximately eight veterans on the average can be seen in one day and still give the veteran all the information he needs to make his selection of a school or schools for training in the occupation of his choice. The total time of the interview includes filling out forms, telephoning agencies and schools

which may help the veteran, clerical details, and keeping up-to-date on latest information.

THE VETERAN. Surveys of the veteran show that approximately 45% of those seeking information on education are in the age groups between 18 and 24. The 18-21 age group contains the largest number of veterans desiring professional training. It is this group which most desires a college or university training leading to a profession.

In every age group, 50% or more of the veterans want training leading towards the occupation of a skilled workman. The percentage of veterans desiring to enter the field of semi-professional training decreases as the age group increases, with the single exception of those in the 18-21 age group. In general, the proportion of those desiring to become service workers (barbers, beauticians, cooks, hospital attendants and waiters) is large in the higher age-groups.

Only about 32.6% of the veterans interviewed at this office desire to return to the civilian occupation formerly held. Still fewer want to carry on the kind of work done in the army, witness the infantryman.

GENERAL STATEMENTS. Visiting schools in the evening to lecture on the G.I. Bill and the counseling service, one discovers the paucity of information available to all schools. A regular newsletter to all schools through the Superintendent, on the G.I. Bill, its provisions and interpretations would help. Regular lectures at stated intervals by specially assigned counselors would be able to answer many questions.

The trade centers of the Board of Education are permitting veterans to try out a course before making a decision. This program seems to help eliminate the drop-outs that would normally occur after the first week. Another additional aid to veterans in making a decision would be the use of films on occupations.

There is no end to the amount of information that can be put into an article about the educational service. There is no end to the amount of work that must be put into the program to make it a success. This article could not attempt to answer all the questions about the service. Other counsellors have been asked to write articles about other phases of the work done in this unit; some of these articles are included in this issue.

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THE INTERVIEW FORM

Name (print): _____
Last First

Address: _____
Borough

Date of Discharge: _____

Length of Service: _____
Date

Serial No. _____ Age: _____

Education: El: 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8
HS—Aca/Com/Voc'l: 9 10 11 12
College: 13 14 15 16
Service Schools: _____

Civilian Occupations: _____

Service Occupations: _____

Hobbies: _____

Service Disabilities: _____

Information Desired: _____

FOR COUNSELORS ONLY

Course: _____ Day_____ Eve._____

Comments:

Referrals:
1. Private Schools:
2. Bd of Ed Schools:
3. Trade Centers:

Testing:

Other Agencies:

Follow-up:

P L 346—16—State Scholarship—
Certificate of Eligibility—Form 1950

Date_____ _____ Counselor

Interview 1, 2, 3, 4

BOARD OF EDUCATION OF THE CITY OF NEW YORK
BUREAU OF VETERANS' AFFAIRS
500 Park Avenue, N. Y. PLaza 3-1705
CARL LIGGIO, ADMINISTRATOR

Weekly Report for the Week Ending May 4, 1946

Item	This Week M	This Week F	This Week Total	Last Week M	Last Week F	Last Week Total	Total to Date
A. NO. OF PERSONS INTERVIEWED	726	18	744	582	12	594	28,045
1. Personal	526	14	540	401	10	411	22,653
2. Telephone	200	4	204	181	2	183	5,392
B. COUNSELING INTERVIEWS	526	14	540	401	10	411	23,153
1. First Interview	467	14	481	386	10	396	22,418
2. Second Interview	59	—	59	15	—	15	694
3. Third Interview	—	—	—	—	—	—	35
4. Fourth Interview	—	—	—	—	—	—	6
C. REFERRALS	807	17	824	610	10	620	28,207
1. Veterans' Admin. (Hdqts)	14	—	14	7	—	7	374
2. Veterans' Admin. (NYCVC)	5	—	5	2	—	2	428
3. Other Agencies at NYCVC	25	—	25	16	—	16	532
4. Priv. Schools—Full time	230	12	242	175	6	181	6,952
5. Priv. Schools—Part time	162	2	164	137	3	140	5,947
6. Post H. S. Courses	9	—	9	10	—	10	626
*7. Bd of Ed Schools—Full time	76	—	76	72	—	72	3,537
*8. Bd of Ed Schools—Part time	191	1	192	128	1	129	6,847
9. Bd of Ed Schools—other schools	—	—	—	—	—	—	4
10. Individuals	—	—	—	—	—	—	8
11. Other Agencies	50	2	52	30	—	30	1,236
12. Testing	17	—	17	8	—	8	644
13. Pending	—	—	—	—	—	—	141
14. General Information	6	—	6	7	—	7	152
15. Receptionist Referrals	—	—	—	—	—	—	353
16. Apprenticeship and O-J-T	22	—	22	18	—	18	426

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Item	This Week M	This Week F	This Week Total	Last Week M	Last Week F	Last Week Total	Total to Date
*Breakdown of figures of Bd of Ed. Schools:							
Full-time:							
Academic	6	—	6	6	—	6	
Vocational	11	—	11	15	—	15	238
Trade Centers	59	—	59	51	—	51	826
Part-time:							1,425
Academic	80	—	80	34	1	35	
Vocational	23	1	24	18	—	18	1,356
Trade Centers	88	—	88	76	—	76	2,264
							965

BOARD OF EDUCATION OF THE CITY OF NEW YORK

BUREAU OF VETERANS' AFFAIRS

500 Park Avenue, N. Y. PLaza 3-1705

Frequency of Courses Requested by Veterans

May 4, 1946

Course	Current Day	Current Eve.	Total to Date Day	Total to Date Eve.
A. *Academic High* Schools (includes English to Foreign)	17	79	632	1726
B. *Clerical & Sales*				
Bookkeeping	1	1	41	66
Business Admin.	3	4	119	157
Bus. Machines	5	1	51	31
Post Office	—	1	15	20
Commercial	2	5	103	97
Insurance	1	—	17	45
Med., Dent. Secretarial	—	—	22	10
Merchandsg. & Sales	1	3	50	94
Real Estate	1	2	22	40
Steno-Typing	5	2	100	172
Traffic	—	3	48	130
Stenotyping	—	1	12	7
C. Colleges	9	3	222	93
D. *Crafts*				96
Aircraft Mech	12	1	274	130
Air Conditioning	3	1	128	

Course	Current Day	Current Eve.	Total to Date Day	Total to Date Eve.
Armature Winding	—	—	7	14
Arts & Crafts	—	—	28	11
Metal	—	—	3	4
Leather	19	13	3	—
Auto Mechanics	1	1	510	451
Baking	—	1	65	30
Blueprint Reading	—	—	9	59
Brewing	1	1	1	1
Bldg. Constr.	—	—	7	8
Bldg. Maintenance	—	—	15	21
Cake-Candy Making	4	2	22	7
Carpentry	2	—	87	63
Ceramics	4	1	11	31
Dental Mechanics	—	—	234	137
Diamond Cutting	4	1	49	15
Diesel Engines	—	2	135	78
Dressmaking	—	—	37	33
Elec. Appliances	14	10	10	5
Elec. Install. & Prac.	—	1	403	373
Electroplating	1	—	3	12
Engraving	—	—	10	15
Floristry	—	—	4	1
Fur Dsgn. & Pttrn Mkg.	1	1	6	20
Fur Cutting & Oprtg.	—	—	16	34
Glass Blowing	—	1	10	4
Heating	2	3	3	6
Interior Decor.	3	4	91	73
Jewelry	—	—	98	168
Leather Gds. Mfg.	2	—	8	35
Lens Technician	2	3	14	2
Linotyping	—	—	116	99
Lithographing	5	6	30	40
Machine Shop	—	—	208	225
Meat Merchandise	—	—	45	55
Men's Clthg. Mfg.	—	—	18	24
Millinery	1	1	2	—
Motion Pict. Oprtg.	—	—	44	51
Oil Burner	1	—	37	42
Optical Mechanics	2	—	65	28
Painting-Paper	4	3	25	26
Pttrn. Making & Dsgn.	2	—	90	96
Plastics			81	142

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Course	Current Day	Current Eve.	Total to Date Day	Total to Date Eve.
Plumbing	1	4	68	86
Power Mechanics	3	—	28	25
Presswork	—	—	3	9
Printing	2	2	134	121
Radio Serv. & Repair	13	6	505	361
Radio Technician	19	1	421	186
Refrigeration	14	7	440	370
Sculpture & Stone Carv.	—	—	2	1
Sheet Metal	1	—	28	40
Shoe Mfg. & Repair	—	—	19	24
Signs & Show Cards	2	—	15	18
Silk Screen	—	—	4	11
Stationary Engr.	—	1	8	7
Tailoring-Design	4	1	68	69
Tailoring-Valets	—	—	26	40
Tool-Diemaking	2	6	66	93
Upholstery	3	—	91	72
Watchmaking	9	2	241	120
Welding, G&E	—	1	34	41
Window & Fash. Displ.	1	1	13	57
Woodworking	6	—	30	26
E. *Farm*				
Farming	5	—	43	3
F. *Managerial*				
Advertising	2	4	94	89
Export—Import	1	2	18	35
G. *Professional*				
Art	—	—	12	2
Acctg. & Bus. Prac.	1	4	180	229
Dramatic Arts	6	2	111	32
Electrochemistry	—	—	1	2
Electronics	1	1	27	21
Journalism	—	1	12	10
Language	3	4	120	70
Music	9	3	220	110
Nursing	1	—	7	—
Public Speaking	—	—	11	17
Voice	—	4	20	30
H. *Protective Services*				14
Fingerprinting	—	—	3	10
Fireman	—	—	10	37
Policeman	—	—	40	

Course	Current Day	Current Eve.	Total to Date Day	Total to Date Eve.
I. *Semi-Professional*	10	4	346	202
Comm. Art & Illust.	1	—	35	14
Costume Dsgn. & Illust.	—	—	31	9
Dancing	1	—	27	24
Design, Indust.	2	—	14	3
Dietetics				
Drafting	—	—	59	59
Aeronautical	4	3	49	48
Architectural	1	1	13	11
Electrical	4	1	130	73
Mechanical	—	—	1	—
Ship	—	—	3	1
Topographical	1	1	5	2
Fashion Modeling	5	1	51	5
Flying	1	—	7	—
Forestry	1	—	39	27
Laboratory Tech.	2	—	70	16
Embalming	9	1	321	233
Photography	—	—	12	4
Physiotherapy	2	3	143	67
Radio Operating	—	—	2	2
Stage Design	—	1	25	78
Textiles	2	—	17	7
X-ray				
J. *Other Service Trades*				
Barbering	2	—	75	13
Bartending	2	—	89	34
Beauty Culture	5	1	137	27
Cafet. & Catering	—	—	13	6
Cooking	1	—	58	22
Dry Cleaning	—	—	6	1
Hairstyling	1	—	20	7
Massage	2	—	33	2
K. *Other (for avocational purposes)*				
Art	—	—	8	2
Language	2	1	16	29
Music	3	3	153	93
Public Speaking	—	2	10	15
Voice	—	1	5	4

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High Points

THE ANTIQUARIAN'S CORNER

General Lionel Charles Dunsterville, who died at Torquay, England, on March 17, 1946 at the age of eighty, was the original Stalky of Rudyard Kipling's classic of school life, *Stalky & Co.* By a coincidence, it was at Torquay in 1896 that Kipling got the idea *"of beginning some tracts or parables on the education of the young."** These developed into a series of stories about the school which Kipling attended between the ages of thirteen and seventeen (1878-1882). In the book, Kipling himself is Beetle and G. C. Beresford, author of *Schooldays with Kipling,* is M'Turk.

In 1935 Kipling still looked upon *Stalky & Co.* as a collection of tracts. Therefore, upon re-reading the book, I discovered again, as one often does in returning later in life to a book read in one's youth, that books about boys were not written entirely for boys. Enough of the tract and parable material is discernible by an adult; a youngster would pass this by and get on to the escapades of the trio, which must open a world of suppressed desires to the pupils of a large modern city high school.

In the second reading, I was interested in those parts which once meant little to me, the character sketches of the teachers, the insight into their educational methods, and above all the re-enactment of a Latin lesson. The chapter depicting the Latin lesson, entitled *"Regulus,"* should be included in any future anthology of scenes of school life and characters.

The school attended by Kipling, the United Services College at Westward Ho! Bideford, North Devon, was established by members of the armed services for the cheap education of their sons who were expected to follow a military career. It was modelled upon the more exclusive and expensive "public" schools. Kipling referred to it as a *"caste-school."* The U.S.C., as we might call it, or "Coll" as the boys called it, was not really a college but a preparatory school for examinations to enter a university school. However, as one wit has observed, the public schools of England were neither public nor schools.

In spite of some reference to fagging in *Stalky & Co.*, that brutal system did not exist at the Coll in reality. Flogging and caning was

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* *Something of Myself*, by Rudyard Kipling, (Garden City: Doubleday, Doran & Co., 1937).

mild by the standards of those days. Bullying, however, did exist as in the other schools, and because of it, Kipling found his first term *"horrible,"* and his *"first year and a half was not pleasant."* In general, he felt that *"Westward Ho! was brutal enough."* More than fifty years later, the memory of the primitive conditions was still with him and he wrote in 1935 that *"the food would now raise a mutiny in Dartmoor."* However, he did have some pleasant memories of his last years at the Coll after the Triple Alliance of Beetle, M'Turk, and Stalky was formed.

The reference to the book in the obituaries of General Dunsterville furnished Simeon Strunsky, who conducts *Topics of the Times,* a tract and some parables on education then and now, and on the changes which have taken place since Stalky and his friends went to school. (Cf. March 20, 1946 issue of New York *Times.*) Strunsky remarked that it was a tribute to Kipling's genius that although he was not entirely happy at Westward Ho!, nevertheless he had seized *"upon the sunlight which is the essence of childhood and youth."* As one who constantly harks back to the golden days of the past, Strunsky believes that *"traditional schoolboy life as in Tom Brown at Rugby and Stalky and Co., or just boyhood as led by Huckleberry Finn and Tom Sawyer, was a happy life"* but that in the hands of many contemporary novelists the public school *"ceased to be a training ground of character and the apprenticeship for Waterloo."*

I do not know who are the contemporary novelists indicated by Strunsky for he mentions only Wells, who, after all, is really Kipling's contemporary. Kipling was born in 1865, Wells in 1866. On re-reading *Stalky & Co.*, I wonder how happy the youngsters of that book really were. They impressed me as a grim lot, called on to do work outside their interests and often beyond their abilities, subjected to sarcasm, insults, beatings, and terrific penalties for the least infraction of the rules. Their pranks did not seem to stem from whole-hearted gaiety, but from a code of war. As Beresford observed,*

"There was, of course, never any question of mutual aid and co-operation in the business of education: such an idea never came into our heads. We were at school to fight the masters."

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* *Schooldays with Kipling*, by G. C. Beresford, (London: Victor Gollancz Ltd., 1936).

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When *Stalky & Co.* appeared, the *"tracts"* were considered lacking in reverence, rather brutal, and untrue. However, Kipling himself was not an advocate of "soft" or progressive methods. Writing about the stern teacher of English and Latin named King in the book, he comments, *"I think this 'approach' is now discouraged for fear of hurting the soul of youth, but in essence it is no more than rattling tins or firing squibs under a colt's nose. I remember nothing save satisfaction or envy when C——— broke his precious ointment over my head."*

That is how Kipling felt in his reminiscences at the age of seventy, but I wonder how he and his classmates felt when they were under seventeen and the ointment was cracking over their heads. Stalky himself wrote in the preface to Beresford's book that *"the memories of old gentlemen over sixty are not to be entirely trusted."*

Much more to the point is the following passage taken from a life of Churchill:*

"It was the custom for uncles and aunts and schoolmasters to spread the tale that one's school-days were the happiest of one's life. One of the most popular forms of reading for boys was the school-story, in which school life was depicted as being one round of games, jokes, and sports and adventure. All the grown-ups agreed that school life was like that. Yet if you questioned them closely, you would discover that there was a great deal of bullying, that boys got thrashed, that food was bad, and in winter time the dormitories were bitterly cold."

The above extract goes from the world of fiction to the world of reality. Strunsky admits that school life of the nineteenth century was *"not wholly free from shadow,"* but contends that *"the sunshine predominated."* To persist in the latter contention is to blink at historical facts. There were millions of children in England during the nineteenth century whose youth was blighted. No sun shone upon them as they toiled more than twelve hours a day in mines or in factories. The realistic novelists of our times did not demolish joyous youth. Turn to the pages of Charlotte Brontë and Charles Dickens to see how unhappy were the childhood days of a large part of the British population.

Even those who were able to attend the select schools were not

* *The Young Churchill*, by Stanley Charles Nott, (New York: Coward-McCann, Inc., 1941).

completely happy. Discipline was rigid and based upon the principle of fear. A child had few rights as a human being which the master was bound to respect. The older pupils aped the masters and when their own period of suffering was over they in turn ragged and bullied the younger pupils.

There were many who broke under the strain. Shelley could not stand the bullying and floggings at Sion House, Brentford, but it might be argued that he was of an unusually sensitive nature. What shall we say of the rugged Winston Churchill who typifies the ideas that Stalky and Beetle carried out in life? Churchill wrote of his early days at St. James School, Ascot, *"How I hated this school, and what a life of anxiety I lived there for more than two years."** The harsh treatment made him ill and caused him to stammer. Another strong man, Sir A. Conan Doyle, no realist but a writer of romantic tales, looked back with displeasure upon the school which he attended.

As one examines the conditions in the schools of the last century in and out of fiction, which to Strunsky were distilled sunlight, one finds that life in them was far from joyful. Happiness in school life or in youth depends upon more factors than merely being young. Social trends, economic conditions, sympathy and understanding by parents and teachers, the contents and aims of an educational system affect the happiness and well-being of children. Attempts to make the children happy in the golden days to which Strunsky harks back with mellowness were either non-existent or negligible compared with the conscious efforts made today to understand the child.

At the risk of losing my standing as an antiquarian, I hereby affirm that never was so much done in the schools as is being done now by sympathetic and understanding teachers to make our children happy. If complete happiness has not yet been attained by teachers or pupils, a need for the improvement of relations between society and the schools is clearly indicated.

MORRIS ROSENBLUM Samuel J. Tilden High School

ENROLLMENT IN FOREIGN LANGUAGES: MARCH 1946

The school term began with a slight increase in all foreign languages except Portuguese. The total enrollment, including day senior high schools, evening senior high schools, junior high schools and

* *A Roving Commission*, by Winston S. Churchill, (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1941).

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vocational schools, amounts to 150,435, an increase of 2361, or 1½% over last term.

The enrollment in the various languages is as follows:

	Oct. 1945	*March 1946*	*Increase*	
French	50,387	50,748	361	7/10 of 1%
German	8,175	8,488	313	3¾%
Greek	20	23	3	15%
Hebrew	2,882	2,940	58	2%
Italian	10,010	10,550	540	5⅜%
Latin	14,549	14,599	50	⅓ of 1%
Portuguese	49	41	—8	—16%
Spanish	61,683	62,369	886	1½%
General Lang.	519	677	158	30%
	148,074	150,436	2361	1½%

The greatest numerical increase was in Spanish, namely 886; the largest percentual increase, among the modern languages, was in Italian, i.e., 5⅜%. General language, which includes "preparatory language," has risen to 677. Numerical gains of over 300 were also made in French and in German. Italian, with more than 10,000 students, now ranks third among the modern languages.

Although the modern languages made their largest gains in the senior high schools, Spanish increased by only 2 in that division. However, in the junior high schools it gained 177, in the evening schools 441, and in the vocational schools 66. The enrollments in these schools are as follows:

	Senior H.S.	*Junior H.S.*	*Evening*	*Vocational*
French	31,328	17,899	1,233	288
German	7,387	936	105	60
Greek	23	—	—	—
Hebrew	2,631	168	141	54
Italian	7,062	3,113	321	73
Latin	12,741	1,605	180	20
Portuguese	—	—	21	568
Spanish	47,368	12,126	2,305	—
General Lang.	512	165	—	

French, German and Latin show gains in the senior high schools, but losses in the junior high schools. Although Spanish is gaining rapidly in the latter division, French still leads with 17,899 students. In the senior high schools French constitutes 30% of the language enrollment; in the junior high schools it is 50%. In fact, in the latter division more pupils are in French classes than there are in all

the other modern language classes combined. In the evening schools and in vocational schools Spanish has made the largest gains. Foreign languages are offered in all of the evening high schools and in seven vocational schools.

THEODORE HUEBENER — Acting Director of Foreign Languages

A HIGH SCHOOL OF GOVERNMENT SERVICE

During the last few years a number of specialized secondary schools have been established in the City of New York to provide for the special gifts and needs of large groups of students. Some of these schools are purely educational; others are preparatory, and still others are definitely vocational. As notable examples of each of these types of specialization one may cite the High School of Music and Art, Brooklyn Technical High School and the Central High School of Needle Trades.

Some of these institutions, like the last-mentioned, are the finest of their kind and set an example to the whole country. Particularly in the field of vocational education, the city provides a rich program, such as the special schools for food trades, printing, automotive trades, aeronautics, industrial art, homemaking, garment trades, textiles, etc.

There is still lacking, however, one type of education which the city of New York, because of its size, resources and cosmopolitanism, is in a unique position to provide. This is a *School of Government Service* on the secondary level.

During the last two decades the number of municipal, state and federal employees has increased tremendously. Through the war the federal service in particular received an amazing impetus, so that the number of civil servants went into the millions. The demand for trained clerical help, assistants, secretaries, specialists and technicians of all kinds was so great that considerable difficulty was experienced in securing adequate staffs for the hundreds of government bureaus.

State services have grown, too, though not so rapidly; the same may be said of the city government. Although the many officials and bureaus created by the war have already diminished, there is no doubt that because of world economic conditions, the policy of regulation will continue. This means a steady demand for large staffs of trained specialists.

The need for municipal employees has for years been supplied

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in considerable measure by one well-known private institution, whose sole purpose obviously is to prepare the candidate as rapidly as possible by intensive coaching for a given civil service examination. The aspects of general education and of cultural enrichment, the building of character and the inculcation of ideals, do not enter—at least not directly—into the picture.

Since it is quite evident that a given percentage of our students will enter government service, why should they not be definitely prepared for this important life's work? A specialized high school would train them not only for city jobs but also for State positions. For the more ambitious there would be the incentive to prepare for the Federal government, with a possible career in the diplomatic service.

The latter would be something quite new in the way of secondary education, opening an avenue of unusually rich and interesting professional possibilities. With the dominant role which the United States will undoubtedly play in world affairs for many years to come, the demand for trained officials at home and well-educated representatives abroad will be a steady one. Here is an opportunity for the school system of New York to branch out into a new field and to make a valuable, nation-wide contribution. The undoubted success of a special High School for Government Service would lead to the establishment of similar institutions in other important metropolitan areas.

A high school of this character would have the following departments: English, Social Studies, Health, Foreign Languages, Geography, Sciences, and Commerce. The basic required work in English, Health and Social Studies would be offered. The specialized courses would consist of the following: *Social Studies:* history—general survey of recent world history with stress on international and diplomatic relations; a detailed study of the history of countries offering problems (British Empire, Germany, France, Italy, Russia, China, etc.); courses in the history of Latin-American countries.

Economics: International Law, labor problems, Good Neighbor Policy, civics, government, foreign policy of the United States, foreign trade.

Foreign Languages: Each student would be required to take a first language for four years and a second one for three years. A course of one year in linguistics would be offered in the fourth year, giving the student a general survey of lesser known languages, so

that he might at least recognize them, obtain an insight into their structure, and pronounce and spell foreign names correctly. Major languages to be offered at the school would be: French, German, Italian, Portuguese, Russian, Spanish, and possibly Chinese. Minor languages, for the training of interpreters, would be Polish, Yiddish, Czech.

Geography: a two year course in physical, political and commercial geography would be required of all students preparing for the Federal or foreign service.

Commercial Department: courses in bookkeeping, typewriting and business practice; stenography in English and also in conjunction with certain foreign languages; government forms, documents and correspondence; filing; elementary government; finance; commercial law.

Science: survey course in problems in the construction of streets, roads, bridges, sewers, playgrounds, public building, etc.; government housing; foods and drugs; sanitation and health; parks; transportation; traffic regulations.

The High School for Government Service could integrate its work with that of local colleges already maintaining similar departments, such as City College. The nature of the work would be so broad, however, that even if the graduate did not decide to go into municipal, state or federal service, he would be equipped to enter the foreign department of any large corporation. The need for this training is evidenced by the fact that most of the very big companies maintain their own educational staff because of the inadequate supply of well-trained young people coming from the schools.

THEODORE HUEBENER Acting Director of Foreign Languages

PRACTICAL TEACHING-TECHNIQUES FOR THE SLOW PUPIL

Most of the literature available in the field of teaching the slow pupil and the general diploma student usually emphasizes the need for special techniques, special methods and attitudes on the part of the classroom teacher. Professors of education attempt to solve our practical problems by offering sound principles of pedagogy. However, there are many teachers who, although aware of the theory, are more desirous of the practical "know how." The procedures described below are not original in the sense that they have never

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been used or suggested before. The important point for consideration is that they were used by the writer with effective results.

SUPERVISED STUDY. Of the various suggested general techniques for teaching the slow pupil, supervised study was found to be most effective both in the actual learning process and in the end results, the objectives of the course. The Dalton and Winnetka Plans are far too difficult for the slow pupil to carry through. The students of limited mental ability need the constant guiding hand of their teacher. The Dalton and Winnetka Plans have their values for the normal and bright youngsters. Yet, supervised study means different things to different teachers. Here are some common techniques used by teachers which do nothing or little to solve our problem:

1. Pupils are told to open their texts and notebooks, read given pages, and write the answers to questions at the end of a chapter in their book. Absolute silence prevails in the room. The teacher works at her desk.

2. The teacher writes questions on the board. Pupils are told to open their texts, work quietly in their seats and, if they have questions to come up to her desk for the information. Few pupils approach the teacher for fear of interrupting her at her work.

3. The teacher divides her period in half. Pupils must complete their work in the assigned time. At the end of the assigned time, texts are closed and the teacher proceeds with a question-answer recitation based on the required reading.

The following is a detailed description of a functional-supervised study technique used by the writer in his classes.

1. The unit method of teaching is used. Work sheets containing study questions and activities to be completed within the unit are distributed to each pupil.

2. There is no homework. Required reading and other assigned activities are to be done in class. However, to avoid deliberate wasting of time by any pupil, the fixed class rule is that work not completed in class must be completed at home. No activity is assigned in an amount that cannot be done in the allotted time.

3. Pupils are encouraged to work with a fellow student who can help in case of difficulty. Talking quietly is permitted. Pupils may walk about the room to reach their co-workers, approach the board

to work with the map and go to the room library without asking permission of the teacher.

4. A small room library is maintained. A set of dictionaries is available for language difficulties; supplementary texts are available for those pupils who have completed their work and want to enrich their knowledge; pamphlet materials for special reports and enriched learning are also available.

5. Pupils who finish their work before the end of the period must submit their work for approval to their teacher or student-teacher. If their work is satisfactory, they are assigned to help their slower fellow students or permitted to go to the room library to choose enriched learning materials.

6. The brightest students in the class are chosen as student teachers. These pupils do "homework." At the beginning of each period their homework is checked carefully by the teacher. Information difficulties are cleared up. The student teachers then move about the room helping and guiding their fellow students working in their seats.

7. The teacher is rarely at his desk. He is usually working with his pupils. He might be with a group of pupils at the front of the room explaining some difficulty involving map interpretation. He might be with a small group of pupils at their seats who found a common difficulty.

8. If some phase of the assignment offers difficulty to most of the class, the supervised study lesson is halted while a discussion takes place to clear up the difficulty. The new lesson may thus arise out of the felt need of the pupils.

9. A discussion period usually follows the supervised study lesson unless a movie, film strip, or other activity is assigned to make the learning more vivid, interesting and concrete.

The procedures just described are very different from those used most commonly under the title of supervised study. If the plan is to be a success, the teacher must become a guide, a source of help and not a taskmaster.

SIMILARITIES AND DIFFERENCES. In general, the good teaching techniques used by the classroom teacher in her normal classes are the solution for most of the teaching problems encountered in the slow classes. It is essential, however, that the teacher recognize the inability of slow pupils to do the work required of

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normal pupils and then adapt her teaching procedures accordingly. It is of little value for a teacher to maintain that she understands that slow pupils cannot express themselves at length, that their attention span is small, that their powers of recall and analysis are very weak, and then to go ahead in her teaching as if the whole problem was academic. A specific teaching procedure that appears minor on the surface yet is of great value is the use of the notebook during a lesson.

USE OF NOTEBOOKS. Good supervision suggests that notebooks be closed during a discussion lesson. Open notebooks in one way or another may result in inattention on the part of pupils. Students cannot lend themselves to the entire lesson proceedings if they are busy writing or reading. This is sound analysis and is advisable with the normal class. However, in the slow class, we adapt the procedure to the type of pupil. Pupils are permitted to keep their notebooks open throughout the entire discussion. At the same time, they are forbidden to use pen or pencil for additional note-taking while the lesson is going on, unless permission is granted by the teacher. Such permission will usually be granted when pupils are ready to summarize for the medial summaries or the final lesson summary. The teacher, following good questioning technique, asks her questions slowly and deliberately to allow the challenge of the question to penetrate. In the *extended pause* that follows the question before the pupil is called upon to answer, the class is allowed that precious moment to glance at notes to help recall what was studied and to help organize its collective mind for the challenge of the teacher's question. The appreciation of slow pupils for this extra learning crutch will be readily evident in their attitude toward their teacher. The teacher is considered a teacher rather than a taskmaster demanding of them what their limited mental abilities cannot grasp and offer. The open notebook is not a minor matter. It is one method the teacher can use to adapt himself to the needs of his pupils.

VISUAL AIDS. One of the major problems in the teaching of social studies is that of how to make abstract ideas and an academic subject more concrete. All teachers know that the use of the moving picture, the film strip, map drawing, cartoon drawing, the construction of charts are effective aids in making abstract ideas more con-

crete. The unfortunate situation is that too many teachers know about the techniques and too few use them. It is essential that every teacher become a visual-aids teacher. It would be a wise policy on the part of department heads to include one department meeting to be devoted to giving instructions to teachers in the technique of operating the silent and sound projector, the film strip machine and the slide projector. Making every teacher a visual-aids teacher is good supervision directed toward improving instruction.

There is, however, a definite technique for showing films to pupils. Some of the incorrect procedures used and which should be avoided are:

1. Pupils are told to take notes during the showing of the film. If no adequate preparation was given to the class, is it reasonable to expect pupils to know what to look for in the film? Average students have difficulty in discerning the important from the unimportant. The slow pupil certainly cannot be expected to perform better;
2. Some teachers show a film without knowing its contents beforehand. Too frequently, the contents of the film have more advertising value than educational value.

Correct procedures for using the film in the teaching process are:

1. Prepare the class for the film by one of several means. A special lesson can be devoted to the topic with which the film is concerned.
2. The teacher can give the class an overview of the unit of work to be studied and then can direct the students to find the answers to certain questions in the film itself.
3. In using a strip film, the teacher can parallel the contents of the film with his clarifying remarks.
4. The end of the film should be followed with oral discussion or written work.

NON-VISUAL AIDS. Emphasis on concrete visual aids has been so strong that many of us have tended to minimize the use of verbal illustrations, that is, non-visual aids. Verbal illustrations makes use of vivid events, vivid experiences, an interesting book, a movie, etc., which build strong associations with the topic we are teaching. The more associations built up in the minds of the pupils, the longer the retention of ideas will be. The history teacher who uses Kipling's famous phrase, *"The White Man's Burden,"* as a pivotal question in teaching imperialism, is using a good thought question. But just think of the slow pupil trying to visualize the meaning of this phrase. However, if the teacher will recall for his pupils the moving picture, *The Keys to the Kingdom,* and make reference to the missionary

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and his work, then *"missionary"* and *"white man's burden"* are alive and meaningful. The movie, *Dragon Seed,* makes meaningful why China was an easy victim for Japanese imperialism. It is essential that the teacher use verbal illustrations within the range of interest of his pupils. Once their interest has been reached a good foundation for learning has been set up.

TEACHER PERSONALITY. No article dealing with the techniques of teaching the slow pupil can omit the significant part that the personality of the teacher plays in making the solution to this problem more attainable. It is not enough for the teacher to be an expert craftsman in methodology. Humor, patience, sympathy, understanding are important traits of personality and character that the teacher must take with him into his classroom. Too many teachers continue to look for the solution of the slow-pupil problem as coming from the outside. They fail to realize that their own personality is part of the solution.

DAVID J. LANE Girls Commercial High School

STUDENTS EVALUATE THEMSELVES

Education involves constant progressive self-improvement and self-analysis. It involves the individual's concern with his place in the social structure and his relationship with members of his society. How often does a person critically analyze himself?

In a social studies class at the High School of Music and Art, teen-age youngsters of thirteen and fourteen were discussing "the worker and his problems." These youngsters were interested in job opportunities. One of the questions which was adduced during the recitation procedures was—"What characteristics does an employer seek in a worker." The course of study provided for analysis characteristics that the student and his parents could check. They felt that the qualities listed didn't pertain to children of high school age; that the type of checklist was unsuited to real analysis and appraisal; and that they and their parents had little to guide them in that the list merely contained characteristic adjectives with little thought provocation. Furthermore, they felt their parents would be "prejudiced" in checking qualities, and that there might be differences of opinion on the meaning of some of the terms used.

Observing that the youngsters neither cared nor were interested in

such a list, the teacher said, "If you think the characteristics checklist isn't good, why don't you make your own?" "We will!" was the almost unanimous response. And so a committee of volunteers was selected. They did most of their discussing and analyzing in class. In about a week they presented a self-evaluation chart. The teacher made some suggestions, which they rejected. They then cut their own stencil, ran it off on the mimeograph, and on a day set by them and the teacher had it distributed for analysis and comment to their classmates. Their classmates liked this type of self-evaluation chart, and felt that other students might profit, too, from such an analysis.

Self-Analysis Chart—Parent-Analysis Chart

NAME_____ CIVICS CL._____ AGE_____ yrs._____ months

Directions to pupils: Rate yourself by checking under the word which best evaluates you in the item listed.

Directions to parents: Rate your child by checking under the word which best evaluates him/her in the item listed. Try to be impartial since your fair judgments will be most helpful.

How Much of Each of the Following Do You Possess?	*As Rated by Self*			*As Rated by Parent*		
	Little	*Average*	*Much*	*Little*	*Average*	*Much*
I. Physical Abilities						
A. General Health						
B. Strength						
C. Posture						
D. Eyesight						
E. Hearing						
F. Cleanliness						
II. Social Abilities						
A. Appearance						
B. Personality						
C. Aggressiveness						
D. Leadership						
E. Courtesy						
F. Tact						
G. Adaptability						
H. Cheerfulness						
I. Cooperativeness						
J. Self-control						
K. Friendliness						
L. Speech Quality						
III. Mental Abilities						
A. General intelligence						
B. Alertness						

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C. Reasoning power
D. Memorizing power
E. Creativeness
F. Concentration
G. Dependability
H. Education
I. Reading interest
J. Socially conscious interests

IV. Manual Abilities
A. Use of hands
B. Use of tools
C. Fine or delicate work
D. Machine work
E. Neatness
F. Accuracy

V. Occupation for which best suited

Self-Evaluation Chart

NAME:_____ OFFICIAL CLASS:_____ AGE:____yrs.____mos.

When you get this chart check "yes" or "no" in answer to the questions. Answer honestly . . . remember . . . everyone isn't perfect. After a few weeks check the list again. You should be able to check either "yes" or "improved."

CHARACTER	Y	N	Y	I
1. Are you honest to yourself?				
2. Are you honest in your dealings with others?				
3. Are you courteous?				
4. Are you tactful?				
5. Are you cheerful?				
6. Are you cooperative?				
7. Have you good self-control?				
8. Are you friendly?				
9. Are you dependable?				
10. Do you sincerely criticize yourself and then improve where improvement is necessary?				
11. Have you self-confidence?				
12. Are you broad-minded?				
13. Are you sincere?				
14. Are you generous?				
15. Have you respect for others?				
16. Are you a good sport?				
SOCIAL ABILITIES				
17. Do you take an interest in people?				
18. Do you take an interest in world affairs?				

19. Do you take an active part in school and community affairs?				
20. Are you easy to get along with?				
21. Do you show an interest in goings-on around you?				
22. Do you show leadership qualities?				
23. Do you give people the benefit of the doubt?				
PERSONAL TRAITS				
24. Are you careful of your appearance?				
25. Are you neat about your work and belongings?				
PHYSICAL TRAITS				
Are you concerned about your general health as to:				
26. Sleep 8 to 10 hours per night?				
27. Proper diet?				
28. Take care when bothered by minor illness?				
29. Do you take an interest in sports?				
30. Have you good posture?				
MENTAL ABILITIES				
31. Are you well read?				
32. Do you concentrate well?				
33. Have you a good memory?				
34. Do you have any sort of phobia?				
MISCELLANY				
35. Do you take an interest in your school work?				
36. Do you have clear speech?				

1-8=poor 9-18=fair 19-28=good 29-36=excellent

This cart was prepared by a committee consisting of: Sandra Dobin, Doris Hoffman, Barbara Milberg, June Shapiro, Nina Wilcox.

The preparation of this self-evaluation chart is but another example of how our students can—when given the incentive and opportunity—work together for the common interest of all.

BENJAMIN ROWE
High School of Music and Art

HEALTH SERVICE—A WORKING PLAN

The health service of any school cannot operate to the best advantage of the student unless it is well planned. A successful plan calls for coordination of the services of the Department of Health doctor and nurse, of the teachers of health education, and of the health counselor.

Within a short span of time, the Department of Health doctor and nurse and the health counselor were added to the health service in the vocational high schools. It was not possible in our school to have the entire unit on one floor of the building, which is where

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it should be if it is to function smoothly with a minimum of record keeping, so we decided on the following set-up.

FIRST STEPS. At the time the student is admitted to the school, she brings with her her health record and a statement of a recent physical examination by her own private physician, or by the Department of Health doctor in the source school. During her first week with us, she is checked by the Health Education Department for such items as height, weight, teeth, complexion, hearing, speech defects, posture, foot infection, and condition of hair and nails. These items are entered on a large green health card which is retained by the Health Education Department for follow-up. At the time, a small white follow-up card is made showing defects. This card is for the official and trade teachers' use. It is sent to the official teacher and she notes the defects on her guidance sheet and then gives the card to the student to carry. The student then carries the white follow-up card with her at all times as a reminder of defects to be cleared and as a source of information for academic and trade teachers should they desire to check. For instance if a girl has difficulty in seeing, the teacher may check her health card to see if she should be wearing glasses and fails to wear them, or if she has poor vision and has no glasses. In either case, referral to the school health service may be made.

COLLABORATION. Early in the term, the Department of Health nurse and the health education chairman, each with her own records on the new student, confer so that there may be mutual interchange of pertinent material. Thus the Health Education Department knows whether or not a student may be assigned to "full activity," "limited activity," or "individual health training." In turn, the school nurse gets information concerning weight, vision, complexion and such. The health counselor sits in on the conference because, in our school, the health education chairman is not the health counselor. The health counselor is a hygiene and home nursing teacher.

FURTHER EXAMINATIONS. Each time the student is re-examined in health service, the Department of Health nurse and doctor record the findings on the Health Education Department's green card as well as on the 103S* form. In turn, if the Health

*All forms referred to may be obtained from the high school.

Education Department obtains any dental O.K.s or doctor's notes from private physicians, they send the note directly to the health service office where it is recorded on the 103S and filed in the student's health folder.

AS A SENIOR. When the student enters her senior year, she has another complete examination by the Health Education Department and by the Department of Health doctor. At this time a salmon card showing general physical condition and defects is made out for the placement counselor. No student is placed by that counselor until all remediable defects have been corrected. The counselor is also informed in this manner of handicaps which should be taken into consideration in placement.

ADDITIONAL TESTS. During her period with us, the student has, in addition to the services just described, the following health care:

1. Annual audiometer testing with follow-up on any defects.
2. Foot health survey by the Podiatry Institute to determine defects, infections, and the like.
3. Tuberculosis testing and follow-up.
4. Special follow-up and special consideration where disabling conditions such as infantile paralysis, heart ailments and such are found.

MEDICAL SERVICE. A medical service is maintained in the same office as that in which the Department of Health doctor and nurse work. Any student who feels ill or has an accident may be sent to medical service by any teacher. No student is admitted for medical care without a 194K referral form. The health counselor or teacher on duty gives first aid or medical care needed. The teacher on duty during the heavy schedule is a health education teacher. This provides a link between the two services and permits that teacher to follow through on some of her own problem cases. All information concerning the illness or accident for which the student is referred is recorded on the student's 103S form, and the original 194K is sent to the official teacher for her information. In this manner it is possible to follow-up on chronic illness, multiple accidents through carelessness or physical handicap, or malingering.

JOB OF HEALTH COUNSELOR. The health counselor supervises the entire health and medical service. She follows up on health problems. Any school administration in connection with health is

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handled by her, such as making provisions for precautions for a student who is a typhoid carrier to remain in school. She refers cases to, and accepts cases from, the guidance counselor. The attendance coordinator works with the health counselor on all attendance problems traceable to health defects. All students who have been absent for an extended period of time (one week or more) are referred to the health counselor for readmission.

If a student is subject to seizures, or if she has any physical handicap not plainly visible, the health counselor notifies all teachers of that student at the beginning of each semester, so that they will be aware of the condition and will be prepared to cope with an emergency should it arise.

So that every teacher in the school may be made aware of the health program, a health circular describing the service and specifying the functions of each member of the service is issued about once a year.

With the student the center of interest and concern, and with the official teacher as the core, we believe we have worked out a plan of coordination which gives the best possible service with personnel and accommodations available.

ELSA F. HINTZE
Manhattan High School of Women's Garment Trades

PROSPECTUS FOR AN AEROLOGY COURSE

Although they are telling us these days that we abruptly entered the Atomic Age one day last August, I dare say the schools haven't yet caught up with the Air Age.

When I entered the Army at the beginning of 1943, New York City already had a well-established High School of Aviation Trades, several academic high schools offered courses in meteorology and some attempt was being made to treat such subjects as the theory of flight in general science and physics courses. Undoubtedly, with the accelerated tempo of the war, air-mindedness in the schools increased in the last two or three years.

In my experience, however, the interest of our young people in aviation has always far outstripped the facilities which our schools have provided to guide and develop that interest. As far back as twenty odd years ago the students of the high school I attended began to set up, semi-annually, splendid model-airplane exhibits in

the school library. But all those models had been built in students' spare time at home. At no point did the school curriculum touch upon this exceedingly valuable extra-curricular interest.

COURSES NEEDED. With the enormous increases in student interest in airplanes which the war has stimulated, we can confidently expect that more of our young people will want to make aviation their career and that many of them will want to learn to fly. As the volume of private flying grows, the Civil Aeronautics Authority can be counted upon to enlarge the already extensive scope of its regulations in the interest of public and individual safety. The schools, however, will have to share in the responsibility for making civilian flying safe. They can do this most effectively by instituting as soon as practicable courses designed to make our students air-wise as well as air-minded.

AIR SAFETY. In a column in the New York Herald-Tribune of December 21, 1945, headlined *Future of Flying Menaced by Cowboy Pilots*, Mr. Gill Robb Wilson says, *"Safety in private flying, or in any other kind of flying for that matter, is one-third skill and two-thirds judgment. The airplane shows up a weak head more quickly than it shows up a weak body. . . ."* Later in the same article Mr. Wilson says, *"In* 1940 *C. A. A. reports showed personal flying was thirty-two times more dangerous than scheduled air-line flying, and twenty-four times more dangerous than private automobile driving. Between* 1934 *and* 1938 *there was one fatality for every thirty-three private airplanes in use, and one of each twenty-six existing private planes was totally destroyed by an accident. If such a rate is to continue and the United States has the* 400,000 *privately owned aircraft which the C. A. A. forecasts as possible by* 1955, *the average citizen had best take lessons in digging foxholes."*

Although Mr. Wilson puts the burden of raising safety standards on the individual operator of local flying services, he unwittingly reinforces my case for enlarged education in the schools.

SUGGESTED PATTERN. The pattern for a comprehensive course in aerology has already been set by the pilot-training courses which so many forward-looking colleges instituted before and during the war. The Army Air Forces' training program, although it was geared to war needs, is a brilliant guide to the methods and materials such a course can employ. Suited to our needs are many textbooks,

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among which are *Elements of Aeronautics* by Pope and Otis, *Your Wings and Safety in Flight* by Assen Jordanoff, and *Air Pilot Training* by Bert A. Shields.

Because of the knowledge of mathematics and physics it presupposes, as well as the factor of psychological readiness involved, the course should ideally be given as a senior elective. It should be broad and general enough to be of value to a student who has no immediate interest in flying, but wishes to satisfy a legitimate curiosity in an increasingly important activity of the modern world.

ELEMENTS TO BE INCLUDED. What elements should be included in a course such as I advocate? I shall attempt to set them down as a kind of rough guide for those who may be interested either in establishing such a course as an entity in itself, or incorporating it as a part of a larger unit of applied science.

Both logically and psychologically, a study of the basic functioning of an airplane comes first. The student needs a knowledge of the theory of flight, of the structure of an airplane and the interrelation of its parts in the flying process. Engine structure and function should be taught as an aid to an understanding of simple maintenance.

The student will now want to know how the functioning of an airplane effects its instruments, how manipulation of stick and rudder and throttle registers on his artificial horizon, needle and ball, tachometer, altimeter, and rate-of-climb and air-speed indicators. He should be given an insight into routine take-off and landing procedures, and straight and level flight. Even with Link Trainers so expensive, and space in the average school so limited, we can still hope that one Link Trainer at least can be installed in each school for demonstration purposes.

Physical reactions to flight should now engage student interest. Although problems of pilot coordination are usually worked out on the job, much can be gained from an understanding of deceptive reactions of blind flying, blackouts in acrobatic manoeuvers and visual function during night flying.

NAVIGATION. At this point we are ready to lead the student into a knowledge of elementary navigation. Fundamental to this are the basic principles of dead reckoning and pilotage, and the use of radio aids to navigation. We can teach our charges at least how to

follow a heading, compute drift, reckon a time-rate-distance problem, estimate gas-consumption, and read a check-point on a navigation map.

METEOROLOGY. Since the pilot is in weather—good—or bad—all the time he is in flight, a knowledge of basic weather is important. This phase should include reading the weather map, elementary weather theory, and emphasis on weather hazards. Bad-weather flight-procedures, whether in fog, thunderstorm or icing areas, should be thoroughly developed. In this regard, may I call attention to the excellent series of films on weather hazards to flight which the Walt Disney studios produced for the navy. Although these films were classified "Restricted" during the war, the navy can be expected to release them for civilian consumption at this time.

CULTURAL ASPECTS. Nor should our course be without its general cultural value. A study of the history of aviation can do much to bring about those desirable attitudes in our students which every school subject should have for incidental objectives. The story of man's struggle to fly, from Daedalus to Major Bong, is a most inspiring one. It has much to teach our students—respect for the pioneering spirit and for the achievements of international cooperation, a sense of continuity in scientific development, understanding of the adult responsibilities assumed by anyone who seats himself behind the controls of an airplane and prepares to climb into the sky.

What, in sum, will be the net value of our course? We would guide our students' interest in aviation into purposeful channels. We would provide them with a minimum of knowledge indispensable for safe flying. We would give them a coordinated view of an important field of modern achievement. Lastly, we would lead them to a realization of the seriousness of flight, as well as the glorious fun it can be to those who obey the rules.

JACOB J. LURIA
Evander Childs High School

PHYSICAL ACTIVITIES CLASSIFICATION TESTS

At Science High School during the first week each term the first, third, fifth and seventh term boys are given a series of classification tests known as the PENTATHLON. This is repeated at the end of the term to note achievement and to evaluate the physical activities program. The five tests we use are: chinning, 15-second basketball

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goal-shooting, step and leap, rope climbing and two-block potato race. The point score in use is somewhat similar to the set-up formerly prescribed for the four-event P.S.A.L. Badge Test. We have added chinning as a fifth test although we would prefer another activity, such as throwing a football for distance and accuracy; but since our gymnasium is only 48 feet by 76 feet this is not feasible.

Point Score

Chinning (Pull-up)	*Basketball Goals (15 sec.)*	*Step and Leap (Standing Start)*	*Potato Race (2 blocks)*
12—20 points	9 goals—20 points	15 ft.—20 points	16 seconds—20 points
11—19 "	8 " —19 "	14'9" —19 "	17 " —18 "
10—18 "	7 " —18 "	14'6" —18 "	18 " —15 "
9—17 "	6 " —15 "	14'3" —17 "	19 " —12 "
8—16 "	5 " —12 "	14' —16 "	20 " — 8 "
7—15 "	4 " — 9 "	13'9" —15 "	21 " — 4 "
6—12 "	3 " — 6 "	13'6" —14 "	22 " — 2 "
5—10 "	2 " — 4 "	13'3" —13 "	
4— 8 "	1 " — 2 "	13' —12 "	
3— 6 "		12'9" —11 "	
2— 4 "		12'6" —10 "	
1— 2 "		12'3" — 9 "	
		12' — 8 "	
		11'9" — 7 "	
		11'6" — 6 "	
		11' — 4 "	
		10' — 2 "	

Rope Climbing

Climbing to top, hands only	20 points
Climbing to top, hands and feet; traveling over 2 ropes and descending	18 "
Climbing to top, hands and feet, and down on same rope	15 "
Climbing half-way up, hands only	12 "
Climbing half-way up, hands and feet	10 "
Skin the cat and return—2 ropes	5 "
Skin the cat, one way	3 "
Support body weight for 10 seconds	1 "

CRITERIA. The events in this pentathlon meet most of the accepted criteria for good tests. They are valid in that they measure what they are purported to measure, namely physical and athletic efficiency. They are reliable in that the same results will usually recur with the same boy (possible exceptions are basketball and

potato race, but even here we have found that the *average* mark for several attempts will be about the same) and the gymnasium conditions are the same for all the events. The tests are objective: personal opinion and judgment are not present; they are easy to administer and require only a few periods to complete.

TEST CONDITIONS. Boys are given two tries in chinning, three in basketball, two in step and leap, two in ropes and two in potato race. Enough time is allowed between tests for full recuperation.

USES OF PENTATHLON. The result are used to classify the boys into three groups for physical activity, groups A, B and C. The A group consists of potential squad leaders; the B group, usually comprising about 70% of the class, is the so-called normal group; and the C group is composed of those boys needing special attention and guidance in gymnasium activities. Boys who progress rapidly are moved to more advanced groups.

AVERAGE SCORES. The writer made a detailed study of more than 900 cases for which complete data was available for the term ending February, 1946. The results were both illuminating and encouraging. The average first-term boy scored close to 50 points in September and 60 in January; third-term scores were approximately 60 and 70; fifth-term scores 70 and 75; and seventh-term scores 75 and 80 points.

AVERAGES IN INDIVIDUAL EVENTS. A further breakdown showed that first-termers chinned 3 times in September and 4 in January; third-terms 4 and 5; fifth-termers 5 and 6; seventh-termers 6 and 7.

In basketball the number of goals ranged from 4 and 5 for first-term boys to 6 and 7 for seventh-termers.

In step and leap the distances jumped by first-termers were 13 feet and 13 feet feet, 3 inches, ranging up to 14 feet and 14 feet, 3 inches for the upper termers.

The great majority of those tested climbed to the tops of the ropes; many doing so without using their feet.

The average freshman ran the 70-yard potato race course in approximately 19 seconds, seniors doing so in 17 seconds, in September. All grades showed some improvement in the end-term tests. Seeking to economize in time, with very little effect on complete accuracy, we devised a system of running eight boys at once in the

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potato race. This is begun like any other dash, the teacher starting the clock as he gives the "go" signal. When the 15 second mark is reached the teacher calls out "fifteen" and continues to call out each succeeding second until the last of the eight boys has crossed the finish line. The number called as each boy crosses the line is the number of seconds it has taken him to complete the course.

Average Pentathlon Marks

Term	*Sept. 1945*	*Jan. 1946*
1st	48.8 points	58.4 points
3rd	59.5 "	68.6 "
5th	70.9 "	75.5 "
7th	76.3 "	79.7 "

Average—Individual Events

Event		*1st Term*	*3rd Term*	*5th Term*	*7th Term*
Chinning—	Sept.	5.8 pts.	7.3 pts.	9.5 pts.	12.3 pts.
	Jan.	7.8 "	8.0 "	12.1 "	13.1 "
Basketb.	Sept.	11.8 "	13.3 "	14.1 "	15.6 "
	Jan.	13.0 "	14.2 "	16.0 "	17.3 "
St. & Lp.	Sept.	12.5 "	12.9 "	14.0 "	16.3 "
	Jan.	13.4 "	13.8 "	14.7 "	16.6 "
Ropes	Sept.	9.8 "	10.7 "	12.7 "	16.3 "
	Jan.	13.3 "	13.7 "	15.9 "	17.0 "
P. Race	Sept.	11.5 "	12.9 "	14.4 "	17.6 "
	Jan.	13.4 "	13.9 "	14.9 "	17.9 "

OTHER PERTINENT RESULTS. (1) 93% of those tested showed increases ranging from 1 to 32 points, 20% of these increasing their scores from 10 to 19 points, and 6% more than 20 points.

(2) 7% remained the same or decreased their scores. The range of decrease was 1 to 6 points, the average loss being less than 3 points.

(3) In the September tests 58% were above the average mark for their grade; in the January tests this mark increased to 63%.

(4) 139 boys scored 90 or more points in September, 9 of them scoring a perfect 100. In January 190 made 90 or more points, perfection being attained by 30.

CONCLUSION. We find great interest in the Pentathlon and feel that it is a worthwhile activity. If other schools use similar classification or achievement tests we would be interested in comparing their records with the boys of Science.

LEO SCHIFFER Bronx High School of Science

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Good Education—Good Business

ERIC A. JOHNSTON*

There are thousands of us who can honestly proclaim that what we are or what we hope to be we owe to our teachers as well as our parents.

Owe our teachers? The debt of America to the profession of education is astronomical. But for a number of years, it seems to me, we didn't even acknowledge that debt, much less make any effort to pay it.

I think times have changed. I truly believe that there is more interest being shown in education by laymen today than ever before. We in business sense that. Business is learning and learning fast that education is good investment.

EDUCATION IS GOOD BUSINESS. We're learning that good education is good business. Ideally, I suppose, we should be interested in good education without regard to its value as an investment and without regard to the returns we get from it. But that isn't the American way. We Americans play everything to win. The secret of our success is our innate urge to approach everything from the practical standpoint. It's a good way, because it seems to create an ideology of idealism as it goes along.

Our committee on education in the Chamber of Commerce of the United States is composed of practical business men. In 1944, the committee began to feel that business and education had grown too far apart. It felt that this was a bad state of affairs, because both are integral parts of our economic structure. They need each other. Business needs trained workers which only education can supply, and education must have operating funds which business can provide.

The committee launched a study to see if there were any positive relationships between the economic status of people and the educational level. It compared a number of countries throughout the world, and it found that high income and high standards of living inevitably accompanied high levels of education and technical skill.

EDUCATION AND LIVING STANDARDS. It discovered even in countries which are short on natural resources but abundant with good education that the living standards were high.

* From an address before the American Association of School Administrators in Chicago, March 1946. Side heads ours.

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And the same pattern held true in a comparative study among states and cities in the United States.

Wherever higher incomes prevailed, they were inevitably hand in hand with high levels of education.

Education can contribute hugely to our expanding economy by increasing the productive capacities of people so they can earn higher wages. An ever-expanding economy is what we've got to have if we expect high levels of employment, reasonable prices and general prosperity. This means more consumers, and more consumers consuming more things. The only way to get more consumers is to train them into those wants and to educate them to earn enough money to fulfil those wants.

The greatest natural resource of any nation is the capacity of its people to be educated. In our study of educational levels in foreign countries we found some amazing contrasts. Denmark, for instance, is practically devoid of natural resources. But Denmark, from a per capita standpoint, is actually better off than the United States, rich as we are in natural resources. Switzerland has no oil, no coal, no minerals, no productive forests, and little tillable land. What land it has is mostly up and down. But the Swiss have an economic status which matches our own. Both countries have high levels of education.

Then we turned to some countries overflowing with natural resources. Colombia in South America, for example, teems with rich mines, rich forests, rich soil. But rich Colombia is poor—pathetically poor in per capita wealth and individual income—and Colombia's education level is very, very low.

Wherever the committee cast its lines for facts, it found the same story, the story of high living standards hand in hand with high education levels. And, always the reverse of it, too. Low standards of living, low education level.

OUR COUNTRY. What can we do here in *our* country to lift the standard of living in those sections where it is now much lower than it ought to be? What would it mean to us to have a fully developed economy at home? That is our fundamental economic interest. We want and expect to seek foreign trade, of course. I think we will have a greatly expanded foreign trade in the next few years. But expand foreign trade as we will, it is still the frosting on the cake.

The solid slices with the real nourishment for the ever-hungry economic machine are found right here at home.

We talk a lot about the things we have. We like to recite the fascinating figures of how many telephones we have; how many cars we have; how many ice boxes and how many bathtubs. But we don't always talk so gayly about the thousands of Americans who don't have telephones, or refrigerators or radios or even enough to wear and to eat.

All of which means what? Only this: the capacity of our own people to consume hasn't even been half-way fathomed. If we want to increase the power of the people to consume, we must increase the income. The question is how?

EXPANDING ECONOMY. How in the world can we increase incomes when every now and then somebody invents a machine which does the work of a hundred men? How can we have a constantly expanding economy if we have recurring sieges of unemployment?

Is this something to be frightened about? It is not. It just sounds that way. It sounds a little frightening to recall that a man with a bulldozer can move more earth in one hour than 20 men can move by hand in one day. What becomes of those other 19 men?

Industry—our economy—absorbs them, and the strange law of economy finds more men working at vastly increased rates of pay and for shorter hours where there are more bulldozers than there are picks and shovels. But to get along in this age of ever-increasing complex machinery, our workers must be trained to handle it, educated to handle the machines and themselves. We are by no means up to where we ought to be, but the educational level of our people has risen tremendously since 1900, and so has our income. In 1900, our total earnings were sixteen billion dollars. In 1930, they were eighty billion. Five times as much, but our population had increased only 30 per cent. And in 1945, the national income was one hundred eighty billion—twice that of 1930. All along we have been developing new machinery, but as we developed new machinery, we have developed new skills, a better trained population —a better educated one.

The two factors go together like an axe head and an axe handle. Neither one is much good without the other.

But you can throw all of this right back at me, I know.

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WAKE UP, AMERICA! You can point to a long and dreary list of places right here in America where the amount spent on education is absolutely pathetic. You can point to underpaid teachers, to schools which are nothing but shacks. You can point to communities which seem absolutely satisfied to keep their educational levels down to a standard appropriate perhaps two hundred years ago.

How are we going to convince the whole people of today that education is the best investment for a prosperous tomorrow?

We aren't going to do it by passing a string of laws. Laws never accomplish that which the will of many people is against. We can't choke education down craws which have no appetite for it. Compulsion never accomplished anything anywhere, and particularly in this country.

The way to improve the educational level in this country is by education. That's your job, and it's my job. It's a job of salesmanship. Over and over and over, we have got to tell the story that a high level of education means a high standard of living. Over and over and over we must teach that prosperity and an informed, intelligent citizenry go hand in hand. Seven times seven times we must teach that education is good investment.

Does this sound like an impossibly idealistic program? I don't think so. We start with this fact: everyone—even if the interest is casual—has an interest in schools. The man without children remembers his own school days. The man with children lives them over again—frequently twice if he lives to have grandchildren. If he takes no other interest in education except to compare the modern trend unfavorably against the way it was in his childhood, at least he has an interest. He's ripe for a good argument, and he'd probably enjoy one. Make a convert out of any critic and you have created the strongest colleague you could have.

PUBLIC RELATIONS. But let's be specific. Let's approach this process of educating the country on the value of education with all the scientific viewpoint of the public relations man. That's what it is—a job of public relations, which, in its turn, is salesmanship.

We need to put a little more "oomph" into education. It is a field packed with the dramatic and glamour, too, if you like the word.

I hope, for one thing, that you and all other education groups will invite more and more business men, professional men, farmers,

labor leaders, and housewives to attend your gatherings. Let them criticize if they want to. They'll like you if you do that. It's the first step toward understanding.

Let's see if we can get some fiction writers interested in wrapping some words about plots laid in schools, with the characters teachers and school administrators.

And let's keep our story simple, Let's tell it in language people understand. I don't know that there is, but if there is any "gobble-de-gook" in the trade of education, get rid of it.

To my mind, there is a great story in education—a succession of stories. I think education is dramatic. It has everything in it to make it so: struggle, pathos, triumph, competition, good humor and —interesting people. Just as business needs more customers, education needs more enthusiasts. For my part, I'll buy it, and what's more I'll bet we can sell the story.

Teacher Shortages in 1946

BENJAMIN W. FRAZIER*

Recovery of America's schools from wartime teacher shortages has been unexpectedly slow. The majority of the men and women in the armed forces have returned to civilian occupations; industrial reconversion is well advanced, and several million persons are on unemployment rolls. Yet most States report little or no improvement in the teacher shortage situation. In fact, the quality of teacher personnel, which suffered greatly during the war, continues to deteriorate in many sections of the country.

MORE EMERGENCY PERMITS ISSUED. The first and most important of the available measures of teacher shortage is the number of teachers who cannot meet the legal requirements for regular teachers' certificates. Reports received by the U. S. Office of Education in January and February, 1946, from nearly all state departments of education, show that the number of public-school teachers who do not meet the regular prewar certification standards, and who are permitted to teach upon emergency permits or "certi-

* Senior Specialist in Teacher-Training, United States Office of Education.
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ficates" issued for one school term only, has increased approximately 57 percent over the number of teachers who were issued such certificates in 1943-44. The number has increased at a phenomenal rate every year since the war began, as shown by the following data: 1940-41, 2,305; 1941-42, 4,655; 1942-43, 38,285; and 1943-44, 69,423. In 1944-45 the National Education Association reported a partially estimated total of 78,665 persons teaching on emergency permits. During the present year, 1945-46, reports to the Office of Education show that a partially estimated total of 108,932 teachers in service hold these substandard credentials. This huge number approximately equals the total inflow of all new teachers normally beginning service each year in American public schools. It represents a 38 percent increase over the number of emergency permits held last year, as reported by the National Education Association.

Throughout the war period to the present time, relatively few changes have been made in regular certification requirements, although the enforcement of minor requirements has been liberalized somewhat. Certification officers have been reluctant to suggest changes in statutory regulations governing requirements. They realize the danger of losing, for a long time to come, their hard-won prewar gains.

The nature and extent of the losses in the quality of teacher personnel through emergency certification cannot be stated precisely, but they are serious at best. So great are the variations in the qualifications of teachers among states and between rural and city schools, that thousands of holders of regular certificates may be found who have no more than a high-school education; whereas, in other places, emergency teachers may be found who have 4-year-college or higher degrees. Moreover, in most places where studies of the qualifications of emergency teachers have been made, their average preparation as a group has been found to be about 1 year short of regular minimum requirements. Although some emergency teachers were excellent instructors, a large proportion are immature young people, teachers past the retirement age, instructors with no professional training, and many other persons hired as a last resort to keep the classrooms from closing.

The teacher-turnover rate of about 10 precent before the war had practically doubled in 1943-44, reaching 20 percent in that year, according to reports to the Office of Education. There was some improvement in 1944-45, according to the National Education Asso-

ciation, which estimated that the turnover rate had then dropped to 14.7 percent. Many of the teachers with the greatest mobility had entered military service or war industry by that time, and the marriage rate had dropped somewhat. However, part of the increase in stability, if a loss of one teacher in every 7 can be called stability, was due to the continuance of war-emergency teachers into their second or third year of employment. Continued persistence in teaching of the least qualified members of this group threatens further to retard the postwar advancement of teacher personnel standards.

There are still too many overcrowded classrooms. Furthermore, the prewar decline in the school population has stopped temporarily, and elementary school enrollments are beginning to reflect earlier rises in the birth rate.

HEAVY OUTGO AND LIGHT INFLOW. The immediate causes for the continuance of severe shortage conditions include a combination of unusually heavy withdrawals of teachers from the schools and an increasing shortage of replacements for those lost. *The most important factor in bringing about these conditions is the unfavorable competitive position of teaching in the employment market.* This is plainly indicated by the relatively higher wages and salaries paid in industry, and in other nonteaching occupations which demand college preparation.

Although probably fewer than 85,000 teachers of every kind served in the armed forces of World War II, such service was the next most important wartime factor in teacher shortage. At this time, it is no longer a major factor. Probably marriage now has second place; but this is an important factor at all times. The return of veterans to their former teaching positions is being offset to some extent by the resignation of married women to reestablish homes disrupted by the war. However, marriage, death, retirement, and involuntary separation from positions are always relatively stable factors in the situation.

The growing shortage of newly prepared replacements for teachers separated from the profession, which is the second major cause for the prolongation of the teacher shortage, is affecting materially both the number and quality of the teaching staff. This shortage of newly prepared teachers has been forecast for several years by huge drops in the enrollments of teachers colleges and in teacher-preparation

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curricula in colleges and universities. During the war there was also a large decline in the percentage of college graduates placed in teaching.

The American Association of Teachers Colleges, whose membership includes the majority of the teachers colleges of the country as well as some liberal arts colleges, and university schools and colleges of education, reports that the October enrollment in 156 member institutions has varied as follows: 1941, 106,960; 1943, 52,869; and 1945, 66,803. Thus, the decrease in enrollments from 1941 to 1943 was 50.6 percent, a loss equalled in no other type of 4-year institution. A substantial 26.3 per cent increase from 1943 to 1945 compares favorably with the increase in other types of institutions of higher education, but the enrollment in teachers colleges in October, 1945, still constituted only 62.4 percent of the enrollment in October, 1941. There has been not only a heavy loss in enrollments over a period of several years, but also losses in student quality, as indicated by the relaxation of selective admission requirements in nearly all teachers colleges having them. Since the preparation of the typical elementary school teacher legally requires about 3 years of college work, and of the typical high-school teacher, 4 years, the continuing deficits in enrollments in the teachers colleges and teacher-preparing curricula of colleges and universities forecast continuing deficits in the number of graduates.

Recent reports from the National Institutional Teacher Placement Association indicate not only that the most critical teacher shortage of the war was reached in 1945, but that the shortage will continue for at least 2 more years. The 245 universities and colleges reporting prepared 5 percent more teachers than they prepared in 1944, and placed 9 percent more of their graduates into teaching positions for 1945-46, than they did in 1944-45. The State teachers colleges reporting prepared 7 percent fewer graduates for teaching positions in 1945 than they did in 1944, and placed 13 percent more of their qualified graduates into teaching in 1945-46, than they placed the preceding year. Proportionately, more graduates are being turned out in the field of high school teaching than in the field of elementary school teaching, where the shortage is greater. Substantial increases in the number of new teachers in both fields are expected next year, but the increases will constitute only a small part of the total number needed and will not bring up the supply even to the usual normal demand.

An appreciable number of veterans are entering teachers colleges and schools of education, and many more will enter next year. It is easy to overemphasize the effects of this movement on teacher supply, however. A vastly greater proportion of the spectacular inflow of veterans into higher education goes into technological colleges and schools and into nonteaching curricula of colleges and universities than into teacher preparation. Even in teachers colleges, a high percentage of the veterans are entering lower division general curricula, preprofessional or terminal vocational courses, or other nonteaching work. Whether or not a sizable percentage of these can be induced to continue or transfer into teacher-preparation courses remains to be seen.

Estimates made by various authorities concerning the time necessary to reach approximate normalcy in the college output of teachers usually range from 2 to 5 years. A factor that is not taken into account in most of these estimates is the loss of nearly a million high school pupils—nearly 1 in every 6—during the first 3 years of the war. Many, if not most, of the potential teachers who then left high school will never return. Some of the differences in estimates may be accounted for by the fact that the supply of newly qualified teachers of academic subjects in high schools and of teachers in large cities, highly urbanized areas, and high-salary states, will reach approximate normalcy some time before a normal supply is provided for elementary school grades, vocational and special subjects, and rural schools.

FURTHER ACTION NECESSARY. What remains to be done? Not only are wartime ravages on teacher personnel to be repaired, but the promising advances in teacher qualifications made before the war are to be resumed and new gains achieved. More than 100,000 emergency teachers should be brought up to prewar standards or replaced. Tens of thousands of oversized classrooms should be put on a more effective working basis, discontinued educational services restored, and new ones introduced. Enrollments in approved teacher-education institutions and curricula should be increased temporarily to the full capacity of the institutions and permanently increased by at least one-third.

The courses of action necessary to complete these tasks are generally known. The main thing is for those who support the schools to continue the vigorous use of the means they have already found

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effective in holding and recruiting competent teachers. By far the most effective action that can be taken is to give teaching a favorable competitive place in the employment market for professional workers. There has been progress in this direction but not enough progress. The average annual salary per teacher increased from $1,441 in 1939-40, to $1,728 in 1943-44. In 1945, it was estimated as $1,786. Somewhat more than $1,900 is paid today. This increase of more than one-fourth since 1940 is encouraging. But it is not to be forgotten that the amount was inadequate to start with; that workers in private industry, most of them noncollege trained, earn an average of at least $500 more per year than the typical teacher; and that the increase has not yet overtaken the increased cost of living, even before taxes are deducted. Moreover, current and contemplated adjustments in wages and prices throughout the country threaten to outmode even the most progressive among the currently revised teacher salary schedules.

With the raising of salaries, efforts to improve working conditions in teaching should be continued with more vigor. Since 1940, several state and large city school systems have introduced teacher retirement systems or strengthened old ones. The number of teachers scheduled to receive old-age assistance through retirement and pension provisions increased from 76 percent in 1940, to more than 99 percent in 1946. A number of these plans, however, provide inadequate retirement incomes and should be greatly strengthened. Restrictions against out-of-state and married women teachers, although broken down somewhat during the emergency, still persist in thousands of school systems. Teacher-tenure provisions have been strengthened somewhat, but the typical teacher still faces an annual threat of dismissal. The lack of inexpensive, effective, centralized public teacher-placement services is still a painful one. More important than many of these needs, however, is the expression, both in material and human terms, of a more favorable public attitude toward teaching as a profession. This would go far toward holding many idealistic teachers who enter the profession because they wish to participate in a fine type of public service.

There is growing evidence that the strenuous wartime efforts which kept the public fairly well sensitized to the needs of the schools have been prematurely relaxed. There is a long and arduous campaign yet to win.

The Pupils and Parents of a Comprehensive High School of New York City

DANIEL B. JOSEPH and IRVING ALLEN DODES
Woodrow Wilson Vocational High School

A sequence of many potent factors—depression, war, high wages and plentiful jobs—have caused changes in the character of the vocational school and its population. Today's vocational high school boy is no counterpart of yesteryear's. We must gain insight into his altered needs, characteristics, and background with due regard to the colossal forces reshaping the world. The improvement of instruction and learning, the equilibration of psychological and social imbalances and the preparation for a useful and satisfaction-giving life-work must inevitably await a new understanding of the pupil.

Toward this end, and as a general prelude to a program of administrative and supervisory research planned for this school, the authors prepared a set of questionnaires to be answered anonymously by the pupils of the Boys' Annex (grades I to V) and by their parents. Over 1000 questionnaires were distributed, the return being 100% for the pupils and about 60% for the parents. The idea for many questions was derived from the Information Schedule of the Junior Consultation Service* with permission of the director.

The Vocational Student

JUNIOR AND THE SCHOOL. Junior likes school and professes great interest in his work. Asked whether he is happy in school, he answered:

Yes	54%
Somewhat	20
No	19
No answer	7

A more objective index is afforded by the question as to when he intends to leave school:

At graduation	70%
At 17 yrs. of age	12
At 16 yrs. of age	11
No answer	7

Interest in vocational training is also evidenced in his answer to the

*As reported in J. F. Culbert and H. R. Smith, "Counseling Young Workers," 1939, The Vocational Service for Juniors, New York, N. Y.

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question whether he would stay in school for a *fifth* year of post-graduate technical training if this were offered:

Yes	51%
Maybe	10
No	30
No answer	9%

However, Junior's professed interest usually does not last the four years. School records demonstrate that only about 30% remain for the full course and are graduated. Neither military service nor financial difficulties nor parents can be blamed for this educational waste for (1) even in normal times the fraction graduating (in all types of schools) hovers about this figure; (2) the financial situation of these families is excellent, as will be shown later; (3) the parents desire to have their boys remain for the full four years, as will be shown later. In searching for the reasons for this "souring" on education, we were interested in Junior's remarks as to why he dislikes certain subjects:

Teacher	26%
Difficulty	19
Uselessness	14
Too easy	5
Previous failure	4
Miscellaneous	15 (textbooks, tools, etc.)

This should be examined carefully. Can it be the fault of the teacher? Emphatically, *yes*. Present conditions have made it virtually impossible to avoid "new" teachers and teachers untrained in the subjects which they are "covering." This makes for poor adjustment of teacher and pupil ("the teacher is at fault"), fumbling teaching methods ("the subject is too difficult"), incomplete correlation with vocational subjects ("the subject is useless"), and neglect or omission of optional or related topics which are difficult to teach and learn ("the subject is too easy"). If this is a correct analysis of the situation—and it may to a very great extent explain the premature separation of so many students from formal education —the solution is so obvious that it need not be belabored.

Junior's applied interest does not, alas, match his professed interest. Parents and pupils are warned that approximately ten hours of home-study per week is the minimum essential for scholastic success. Ninety per cent of the students answered the question concerning the amount of time spent on home study as follows:

25% spent less than 30 minutes per week on home study
50% spent less than one and three-quarter hours
75% spent less than three hours and forty minutes!

This indicates that increased homework, increased motivation of home study and better contact with parents in the matter of after-school study are needed.

JUNIOR AND HIS LIFE GOAL. Junior professes great interest in his chosen vocation. Eighty-two per cent of the boys stated that they were satisfied with their vocational programs. Actually, the remaining 18% who say they are dissatisfied with their programs could have them changed by the Guidance Staff if they but took the trouble to make a complaint.

Again, Junior's stated life-goal is at variance with his actual objective in life. When asked at what occupation he would like to be employed in ten years, his answers fall into the following categories:

In his chosen trade	53%
In another skilled trade	20%
Other (farming, etc.)	25%
No answer	2%

Even the 82% who professed satisfaction are not really content; as a matter of fact 82% — 53% = 29% are engaged in training for a vocation which they do not really want, but which they profess to want.

Validation of this conclusion is afforded by answers to the question, "Which *two* of the following departments would you choose to work in if hired in a large industry which had all these departments?"

a—repair work	41%
b—making the article	31
c—designing the article	30
d—testing the article	20
e—drawing the article	14
f—teaching about the article	15
g—delivering the article	11
h—selling the article	11
i—purchasing the article	9
j—beautifying the article	7
k—writing advertisements	6
	195%

Only choices a, b and e, representing 86/2 or 43% of the boys, are directly related to the boys' alleged interest in training for a skilled

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trade. Choices c, d and f, representing 65/2 or about 33% of the students, are indirectly related to training for a skilled trade. This leaves 24% of the replies showing true goals unrelated to the specific work being studied at this school. These answers suggest the source of important problems in guidance and motivation, hence of teaching and learning success, and adjustment to life. Many of these students, perhaps as many as 25%, would be happier and more successful in one of the other courses offered at this school: modified academic, technical or business.

True goals are also indicated in answers to the questions: "Which two subjects do you like best after shop and health education?" and "Which two subjects do you like least?" The subjects best liked were:

English	46%	representing	23% of the boys
Social Studies	46%		23%
Mathematics	45%		23%
Science	28%		14%
Trade Drawing	16%		8%
Music	16%		8%
			99%

We found much more significant than this listing the type of "pairs" that was chosen:

7% checked a "technical pair" (math, science, drawing)
17% checked an "academic pair" (English, social studies)
75% checked a "mixed pair" (such as math and English)

This may indicate that Junior is somewhat confused in his life goal.

The most disliked subjects were:

English	37%	representing	19% of the boys
Trade Drawing	30%		15%
Social Studies	25%		13%
Science	24%		12%
Mathematics	23%		12%
Music	15%		8%
Health Education	9%		5%
Shop	1%		1%
			85%

Two tentative conclusions may be made from these data: (1) the 24% who checked a "technical pair" as disliked are probably in the wrong sort of course; this confirms the findings of previous questions; (2) comparison of "likes" and "dislikes" may indicate that, for many boys, choice of a vocational course of study was governed

by dislike of academic subjects rather than liking for technical and vocational subjects.

Additional light is thrown upon Junior's life-goal from a consideration of his after-school "play activity." When students were asked about this, the answers showed that, usually,

57% play with others
20% pursue a hobby
8% "loaf."

However, 84% stated that they had hobbies. The replies were classified as follows:

22% had a hobby linked with the professed vocational interest
38% had a hobby related to some other trade
24% had a hobby related to some form of athletics

This shows, once more, a lack of consistence and application in the pursuit of the specific, professed aim.

JUNIOR'S PSYCHOLOGY. Junior thinks that he is doing pretty well in high school, generally speaking. He characterized his work as follows:

excellent	2%
very good	9%
good	28%
fair	37%
below average	3%
poor	15%

and this distribution is not far from the truth as revealed in final term sheets of the same group.

He tends to worry somewhat about his school work and conduct, thinks about social problems and (as indication of internal imbalance) does not consider himself "lucky." When asked about his greatest problem in life, his replies tally as follows:

school work	22%
school conduct	12%
own personality	11%
reading ability	11%
choosing a trade	10%
own speech	9%
getting a job	7%
health	5%
family	1%

Asked about social injustice, etc., 50% indicated that they think about this a great deal, 7% sometimes. A certain amount of psycho-

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logical imbalance or maladjustment is indicated by his answers to the question whether he feels he is usually unlucky:

very unlucky	31%
somewhat unlucky	63%
not unlucky	1%

An important factor in the life of an adolescent is the importance of the home in his psychology. Under present conditions, with so many homes temporarily or permanently "broken" by dual job-holding, it is therefore of some interest to discover whether or not the home occupies its expected position of prominence. Upon whom would Junior call for help in case of trouble?

He would seek aid from parents	61%
teachers	13%
friends	8%
relatives	5%
church	4%
	91%

Confirming the possible conclusion that Junior's home does not occupy its usual position of prominence, Junior does not often meet his friends at home.

He meets them in the street	24%
at a place of amusement	19%
at home	18%
at his friend's home	11%
at school	7%
at the candy store, etc.	6%
at church	2%
miscellaneous	3%
	90%

Junior has the normal instincts of an American boy. Except for 18%, he would rather be with other people than alone. He averages about six male friends and five female. In a group he shows qualities of leadership; when asked how often he is the leader, he replies:

often	20%
sometimes	49%
seldom	20%
never	6%

Properly directed, these characteristics may lead to success in life. The raw material is there.

JUNIOR AND OUT-OF-SCHOOL LEARNING. Junior usually does not read those newspapers which are considered to be the best

sources of information; he reads the most unimportant sections of his newspaper; he reads magazines which contribute little or nothing to his growth as a citizen or a skilled worker; however, he is a steady church-goer.

A poll of newspapers shows the following to be most read:

Daily News	74%
L. I. Daily Press	31%
Journal-American	23%
Daily Mirror	19%
N. Y. Times	9%

In this, Junior is undoubtedly influenced by his parents, for the list submitted by his parents (later shown) is very similar. Only 37% read the entire paper; 41% read the sports section, 40% comics, 26% war news and 16% the editorial page.

His magazines may be classified as follows:

picture magazines	32%
trade magazines	26%
comic books	13%
adventure, mystery, etc.	41%

According to parents' replies, 84% of the boys attend church regularly.

JUNIOR AND HIS PARENTS. Fifteen per cent of the students said home life was difficult, and 6% somewhat difficult; but 83% said they were happy at home anyhow.

A COMPOSITE PICTURE. Junior likes school and would like to graduate and, sometimes, take post-graduate training. He is usually engaged in training for an occupation which he thinks he likes; however, about a quarter of the time, he would be better off in some other field. A strong suspicion may be entertained that some of the boys came to vocational school because of their dislike of academic subjects rather than any liking for vocational and technical knowledge. Junior is pretty well adjusted to school, but shows some maladjustment to life situations and society. His home has been displaced from its normal position of all-importance, probably owing to unstable conditions in society. Some of the "slack" has been taken up by the school and teachers. He shows valuable social characteristics of gregariousness and leadership. His parents do not, and the school has apparently failed to, influence Junior in the reading of more objective newspapers and worthwhile magazines.

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The ethical teaching of the Church is taken advantage of regularly in this neighborhood.

The Parent of the Vocational Student

In any attempt to better the psychological adjustment of student to his school and his society and to improve teaching and learning by increasing the psychological bases for readiness, the full cooperation of the parent must be obtained. The following remarks, based upon a 60% return of 1000 questionnaires distributed to parents of boys in this school, are designed to suggest the background of the vocational boy who was investigated in Part I. It is unfortunate that a better return could not be obtained on these questionnaires, but that is a usual fault with questionnaire studies.

THE PARENT AND JUNIOR. The parents have a rather too high opinion of their sons' success in school. When asked about their sons' achievement, the replies are as follows:

	Parents	*Pupils*
excellent	8%	2%
very good	19%	9%
good	38%	28%
fair	28%	37%
below average	4%	3%
poor	2%	15%
	99%	94%

Junior's replies, already reported in Part I, and reproduced in the above table, are much more accurate. Parents' estimates concerning citizenship and attendance are similarly optimistic. If better contact could be maintained between school and home, the parents would probably be disabused of their too-high opinion; then Junior might work harder.

THE PARENT AND THE SCHOOL. Like Junior, the parent professes a great interest in his son's career and success. Eighty-two per cent are satisfied with the son's choice of vocation, only 9% dissatisfied. According to parents' replies, 72% of the boys were sent to this school to learn a trade; 13% came for other miscellaneous reasons.

Parents were asked how long they intend to have their sons remain in school:

85% said: until he is graduated
3% said: until he is 17 years old
4% said: until he is 16 years old

If a fifth year of technical training were offered for post-graduate work, 60% would wish their sons to remain for it, 28% would not.

Again like Junior, the active interest evidenced by parents is distressingly less that the professed interest. That the parents do not supervise their sons' home study is evident from their answers to the question how long the sons spend on homestudy per week. Remember that parents and pupils are warned that approximately ten hours of home study per week is the minimum essential for scholastic success. Eighty per cent of the parents answered this question:

25% reported sons spent less than one hour and forty minutes
50% reported sons spent less than five hours
75% reported sons spent less than ten hours

The corresponding amounts from the students' questionnaires were thirty minutes, one and three-quarter hours, three hours and forty minutes. This shows a lack of information about the students' study characteristics and an amazing indifference to the advice of the faculty.

Another indication of the lack of applied interest on the part of the parents is the number of times they have been to school to see the teachers since their boys enrolled in this school. Only the first five terms are included in this survey so that the "average" student investigated has been in school about a year and a quarter.

never	38%
once	10%
twice	6%
three times	3%
more	14%
no answer	29%

These results indicate that the parents must be awakened to their co-responsibility with the school—and that, in view of their professed interest, such an awakening may be possible.

PERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS OF PARENTS. Since so many different facts seem to indicate a degree of negligence on the part of these parents, it may be of importance to draw a picture from the 60% of the questionnaires which were returned:

A. *Their origin.* Eighty-eight per cent answered; 26% were born abroad, mainly in Italy or Germany.

B. *Their education.* Eighty per cent answered; the average (me-

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dian) had not gone beyond 8A. The high school graduate was in the 75th percentile and the college graduate in the 99th.

C. *The father's occupation.* Sixty-four per cent of the fathers indicated that they were employed in the same trade as before the war; 10% had changed trades. A classification of trades follows:

One of the skilled trades taught in this school	22%
A skilled trade not taught in this school	36%
Unskilled labor	8%
Unemployed	4%
Professional	0%
Miscellaneous (war work, deceased, Civil Service)	30%

D. *The mother's occupation.* Seventy-eight per cent answered this question; 62% listed "housewife" as occupation.

E. *The family income.* Only 71% answered this very personal question.

25% made less than $1900 per year
50% made less than $2600 per year
75% made less than $3500 per year

The average allowance for the son was $1.75 per week, not counting money made after school by part-time jobs. Another indication is the size of family and dwelling:

25% had fewer than 4.6 rooms and a family of 3
50% had fewer than 5.5 rooms and a family of 4
75% had fewer than 6.4 rooms and a family of 5

F. *Other influences on parents.* The newspapers mainly read were:

	Parents' reply	*Pupils' reply*
Daily News	63%	74%
Journal-American	35%	23%
L. I. Daily Press	30%	31%
Daily Mirror	14%	19%
N. Y. Times	14%	9%
Afternoon papers	n e g l i g i b l e	

Three-quarters of them indicated that they read a magazine; the only one receiving many votes was *Life* (22%). Eighty-three per cent attend movies regularly. Seventy-two per cent of the parents attend church regularly; 14% do not.

A COMPOSITE PICTURE OF THE "VOCATIONAL PARENT." Assuming the reliability and validity of this survey for the purpose of a tentative frame of reference, the following composite may be assembled.

The "vocational parent" is a man of limited formed education.

His newspapers are virtually confined to local and non-conservative morning papers; his magazines are diversified, but there is a heavy vote for the pictorials, the most profound being *Life*. The father is usually a skilled man, but not a professional; he usually has *not* persuaded his son to enter the same trade. Since so many of them are not working at their usual trades, a rehabilitation problem may be expected soon. Only a very small number are unemployed, the remainder enjoying a comparatively comfortable income. Most of the mothers who replied are still working full-time at their homes, but it is possible that most of the 40% who did not reply are working outside.

The parents sent their sons to vocational school to learn a trade and would like them to stay for full training; most would even want them to stay in school for post-graduate work. However, they do not really know whether their sons are doing well in school and they do not supervise their sons' home study. Moreover, they do not come to school to consult with members of the faculty, in spite of repeated invitations.

It would appear that an important job for the vocational school is the motivation and education of the "vocational parent."

A Portrait of George Miles—Problem Child*

ABRAHAM MARGOLIES, Lafayette High School

George Miles is one of the most interesting students who ever stepped into my history class. During the first day of the term, students are usually all eyes, ears, and attention. They hang on every word of the new instructor in their desire to size him up. However much their enthusiasm may wane with the passing days, on that first day, they are usually paragons of attention and interest. Not so, George!

"QUEER" BOY. George walked, or rather ambled, into the classroom with a look of surliness mingled with boredom. He noted my existence with a fleeting side-glance that seemed to say, "Another

*The basic facts of this "portrait" were drawn from actual experience with a student at Lafayette. Only minor details are fictional in character.

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one of those hostile forces of nature to be overcome." I had been forewarned by other teachers that George was "queer," but I preferred to keep an open mind. He plumped himself into a seat in the rear of the room near the window and immediately proceeded to scan the horizon as though in search of a heavenly planet. That boy interested me. I wanted to know what made him tick. I proceeded to study him and for a year thereafter (during which time he was in my class) I had ample opportunity to find out. This is what I learned.

George was sixteen years old. In appearance, except for the surliness of his expression, he was not unusual. He was somewhat slight of build—about five feet six inches tall. He weighed about 130 lbs. He had a thick shock of wavy hair which seemed to be in a constant state of rebellion. His eyes were somewhat weak (I learned later that he was a voracious reader) and he wore glasses of medium thickness. His health was good and, except for the usual colds, he rarely ailed.

A PROBLEM CHILD. George was in his fifth term at the time he entered my class. By then, he had already accumulated more pink cards (complaints of teachers to the dean) than any other student in his grade. The complaints against him were of an unusual nature. George was not noisy. He was not the ringleader of a vicious gang. He did not lie, nor cheat, nor chew gum, nor steal, nor throw blackboard erasers, nor cut up in any of the traditional ways so common to other adolescents of his age. On the contrary, George's silence (except when molested by the teacher) was frequently maddening. George lived in a dream-world of his own, and his resentment against intruders—particularly teachers, who frequently disturbed his reveries—knew no bounds. At such a time, George was a changed person. If asked, politely but firmly, by the teacher why he had not done his homework, he replied, "You and your homework bore me." If the teacher, somehow managing to hold on to his equanimity without bursting a blood-vessel, continued: "But George, don't you wish to learn your geometry? (or your French or what have you)," he came back with, "No, I don't wish to learn your geometry. I see no reason for learning it. I'm bored by it. I'd much rather read Plutarch."

Now most teachers properly did not appreciate George's cantankerousness. There was something haughty and supercilious in his

manner. He seemed to talk down to his teachers as though he were Socrates and the teachers his disciples.

READING HABITS. When not engaged in day-dreaming, George would whip out some esoteric classic such as Karl Marx's *Das Kapital*. "Oh, a communist," his teachers would say triumphantly, as though by uttering the magic words they had discovered the key to his ills. But later questioning brought forth the fact that George had nothing but contempt for the ideas of Marx. After I had succeeded in establishing diplomatic relations with him and could get him to talk, he would say, "Marx's Neo-Hegelianism has vitiated his economic analysis. Marx has added mysticism to economics and has called it a system." Now this may have been (and probably is) drivel. But I had to admit that this was a most baffling type of drivel to come from the mouth of a sixteen year old.

ATTITUDE TO SCHOOL WORK. The story of how I established a modus vivendi with George bears telling. At first, George looked upon me, as he did upon all his teachers, as an undisguised nuisance. When homework assignments were given, he never bothered to copy them nor much less to do them. When called upon to recite or make a contribution, he would stand up, look annoyed, say nothing or mutter a few unintelligible syllables and sit down. If pressed for an answer, he would explode, "Why am I being tortured by this nonsense? I have something more important to bother my head about than the meaning of the Roosevelt Corollary. I have no use for that kind of claptrap." No amount of reasoned exposition could convince him that there is much that a person ought to learn for which he has no immediate use.

HIS RECORD. In the meantime I went to the record room to study his record card. His card was revealing. His I. Q.—taken in the fourth and again in the sixth years of elementary school—was listed as 148 and 152 respectively. His reading score was that of a college graduate. Yet there were a string of failures next to his name. He had failed geometry I twice and was finally compelled to drop it. He had failed German several times. In science and English, he received barely passing marks of 65, which probably represented the teacher's respect for his innate ability rather than for any concrete achievement or effort on his part.

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His citizenship or personality ratings read like this: "impertinent," "neurotic," "lazy," "disrespectful," "disobedient," "uncooperative." His record showed no participation in extracurricular activities.

FAMILY BACKGROUND. Naturally I was interested in his family background. This is what I discovered. His father and mother were divorced. For six months during the year, he lived with each parent. His father was a successful lawyer; his mother was equally successful in the field of illustrative art. He was an only child, and although brought up in an environment of culture, he soon found himself a pawn in a long drawn-out legal suit for his custody. His home life was enveloped in an atmosphere of bickering and friction. He hated his father, and during the period during which he had to live with him, his usual condition of neuroticism became considerably aggravated. He said that he loved his mother; yet he once informed me (after we had become friends) that his ambition was to become economically self-sufficient so that he could leave home (of mother as well as father) and live by himself.

RELATIONS TO FELLOW-STUDENTS. He was definitely antisocial. He had no friends. His classmates regarded him as a "mad genius," but shunned him. The boys looked upon him as a "nut." The girls were not quite so intolerant of him, and several even tried to befriend him. But he feared girls like the plague. In their presence he lost his arrogant and defiant mien, and his speech became illogical and incoherent. He probably yearned to be in their company, but never admitted it to himself. At sixteen, he presented a complete picture of frustration and defeat. If ever there was a boy that needed careful and skillful school guidance, it was George. As chairman of the Social Studies Department, I determined to do what I could to help George make a more satisfactory adjustment.

I ESTABLISH DIPLOMATIC RELATIONS. I decided as the first step in my campaign to make a friend of George. Instead of berating him for not doing his homework, or for sulking in the classroom, or for making an arrogant speech in answer to a history question, I invited him to have lunch with me for several consecutive afternoons during the third or fourth week of the term. I informed him that I would not require him to do regular homework assignments, but asked him what he would like to do. He replied

that he wanted to make a study of the historical development of *Tyranny* from medieval times to the present. His very interest in the subject, I felt was significant. I did not discourage him. I asked him how he intended to go about his research. He informed me that he had already begun to gather material for a "book" on the subject. Would I like to see his bibliography and some of his notes? "I'd be delighted," I replied, with some misgivings. But I was amazed when the next day he presented me with a bibliography of primary as well as secondary sources that would have done credit to a professional historian. Somehow or other he had received permission to use the stack-rooms at Columbia University, and was frequently to be found in the main branch of the New York Public Library.

At this period of our luncheon meetings, he was dissecting Machiavelli's *Prince*. For this apologist of tyranny, he had nothing but contempt. Later, I was to discover that he harbored the same loathing for such writers as Hegel, Treitschue, Nietzsche and other high priests of the strong state or the super-man.

COMING OUT OF HIS SHELL. I asked him whether he would mind making a report to the class on the influence of the antidemocratic writers of the nineteenth century on the rise of Fascism. But I pointed out to him that since his classmates were ordinary high school kids, it would be necessary to simplify his language and ideas and bring it down to their level. Would he do it? The thought of for once doing something that he liked to do appealed to him. Yes, he would try. The next week he delivered a fifteen-minute report that was so brilliant and yet so clear that the class broke into applause. The "mad genius" had done it. He had become part of the group. He was one of the boys, and he had done something that had been appreciated. His austere exterior melted. He even learned to smile. After that, he took delight in joining classroom discussions, and since he found that not doing his homework left him at a disadvantage in this connection, he sheepishly admitted that he now read all his assignments (plus many collateral references), although, of course, he still did not deign to do the written work that was required of the other students.

GEORGE'S TRIUMPH. One day, I asked him whether he would mind speaking to the Current Problems Club on the *Origin of Tyr-*

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rany in Modern Times. His eyes shone with pleasure. Would he mind? "I'd love to," he cried with an enthusiasm that for him was unbelievable. When the word got around that the "mad genius" was going to speak to the club, pupils from all over the school came to gaze upon this curiosity, and the club had to move into a large lecture room, and at that there was standing room only. I invited those teachers who were convinced that George was incorrigible to attend the meeting. They couldn't believe their eyes nor their ears. George spoke simply, ably, superbly. In the question period, he astounded everyone by the adroitness and brilliance of his answers. At the end of the meeting, his classmates clustered around him to congratulate him. He even accepted the plaudits of the girls without becoming tongue-tied or flustered. George had found himself, and in so doing, he learned that his classmates were not his enemies and his teachers were not hostile forces.

The effect that this "triumph" had upon him was most remarkable. The respect that he received from his classmates, and even his teachers, gave him an inward and outward glow. Success was pleasant he discovered. He yearned to succeed. In a short space of time he astounded his teachers by doing his assignments with regularity (even though he confided to me, that he still regarded most of his subjects as tripe). He had made up his mind that he wanted to go to college and with that as an objective he would be willing to conform to a few petty-bourgeois prejudices such as passing those school subjects which he detested. By the time he was a senior, it was interesting to note some of the comments made by teachers on his record card under personality and citizenship; "queer but brilliant," "cooperative," "displays excellent qualities of leadership," "works well with other pupils."

George is now a student at New York University. Special letters of recommendation from his teachers, explaining away his earlier record, succeeded in gaining him admittance. I wonder whether his professors and his classmates still regard him as a "mad genius."

A Film Program for Social Living

DINA M. BLEICH
James Fenimore Cooper Junior High School

It is no longer necessary to defend the film as a teaching tool. During the war the army and navy demonstrated its effectiveness with an extensive training program based on the use of films. Films were used not only to impart technical information but also to create the attitudes necessary to produce good soldiers.

We at Junior High School 120 are concerned with these two uses of films. We are concerned with the didactic film that will vitalize the subject matter of the courses of study and with the documentary film that will create attitudes necessary to produce good citizens.

PLANNING OUR PROGRAM. At the beginning of last term a Visual Instruction Committee was formed of teachers who had been using classroom films in the fields of social studies, science, health, Latin-America and guidance. This committee was asked to evaluate the effectiveness of our visual instruction program as an aid to our school program for social living and to plan a program that would reflect our objectives of education.

In reviewing our work in visual instruction during the past two years, we found that we had made some progress in the field. During the war, our auditorium programs had been devoted to the *Why We Fight* series, chosen for the purpose of giving our boys information and of stimulating loyalty and patriotism. The classroom work consisted of subject matter films chosen to clarify the topics of the curriculum.

Among the outstanding experiences in the use of films in the field of human relations during that period were the following four programs:

1. A series of five discussions based on films from the human relations series were conducted by Mrs. Long, the Clinic Psychologist, and Miss Logan, the teacher, with a 7B class. This was part of the guidance work of the term. In the discussion the boys, identifying themselves with the characters on the screen, spoke freely of needs which might never have been revealed in the regular guidance classroom.
2. The documentary March of Time film, *Americans All,* stressing tolerance and racial understanding, was used for an entire week in the auditorium periods so that each class could discuss its

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important implications. The discussion was led by Mr. Boddie of the Community Center.

3. A "Club Program" was presented in the auditorium by Mr. Sachs, using a film showing the activities of the Y.M.C.A. This film was used as a basis for stimulating discussion on the importance of belonging to a worthwhile group instead of to a gang.
4. Our Youthbuilders participated in the Junior High School Film Forum at the American Museum of Natural History. They led a panel discussion on *The Amazon Awakens,* an O.I.A.A. film which emphasizes our intercultural relations with South America. They duplicated that talk in our school with their discussion leader, Mr. Rosenberg.

CONCLUSION. After a series of meetings the committee reached the following conclusions:

1. Our classroom film work was good since films were chosen on the basis of their suitability to the courses of study.
2. Our auditorium programs needed a new theme, now that the war was over.
3. Each auditorium grade needed a well-trained discussion leader.
4. The classroom film work would be devoted to the acquisition of subject matter.
5. The auditorium program would emphasize the development of worthwhile attitudes in the field of human relations.

OUR THEME. We chose films which stressed the theme, *Building the Peace,* and which emphasized the following points.

1. *International Understanding*—films that show how other people live and how they solve their problems.
2. *International Unity*—explanations of the United Nations Organization so that we can help it work.
3. *Better Americans*—films that stress freedom from hatred and discrimination and that aim to develop attitudes of racial and religious understanding.

PROCEDURES. To insure good discussion we set up the following procedure:

1. There was to be only one grade in the auditorium at a time. This meant that classes came on alternate weeks, but we thought it important that the group be reduced in size. Films were to be shown for two weeks, thus covering all grades from 7A through 9B.
2. Films were to be previewed by the discussion leaders and questions evolved.
3. The questions were to be placed on a slide to be flashed on the screen before and after the film showing.
4. A notice was to be placed on the Teachers' Bulletin Board for each new film giving the title, a description of the film, the questions, the class schedule and the discussion leaders.
5. Teachers were to be urged to follow up the film in the classroom.

Films Shown in Auditorium Program

1. *International Understanding*
   a. *The Bridge*
      A film on South America which raises the question whether air transport will help bridge the jungle to bring industrial prosperity to the village.
      Office of Inter-American Affairs/Motion Picture Bureau—Y.M.C.A., 347 Madison Avenue, New York City.
   b. *Gracias Amigos*
      This film depicts the contribution made by our Latin-American neighbors to our victory in the war.
      Motion Picture Bureau—Y. M. C. A., 347 Madison Avenue, New York City.
   c. *Children of China*
      This picture presents episodes from the home, school and play life of children in a representative village deep in the interior of China.
      Bureau of Visual Instruction—Junior High School Film Library, J.H.S. 159, Manhattan.
2. *International Unity*
   a. *Watchtower Over Tomorrow*
      A film on the Dumbarton Oaks Conference—it is useful as an introduction to the study of the United Nations Charter.
      American Association for the United Nations, 45 East 65 St., New York City.
   b. *Now—the Peace*
      This film is a factual summary of the United Nations Organization program for world security. It shows the ineffectiveness of the League of Nations, in preventing World War II and stresses the need for an effective United Nations Organization.
      Brandon Films, 1600 Broadway, New York City.
3. *Better Americans*
   a. *Post-War Jobs*
      This film shows how cancelled war contracts cause "spot" unemploy-

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ment and how veterans feel. Europe, Asia and Africa are suggested as possible foreign markets for post-war development.
Motion Picture Bureau—Y. M. C. A., 347 Madison Avenue, New York City.

b. *Kids Must Eat*
This film is concerned with the problem of nutrition. As it shows the "Quiz Kids" of radio fame eating a school lunch, it adds approval to the subsidized lunch.
Motion Picture Bureau—Y. M. C. A., 347 Madison Avenue, New York City.

c. *Dental Health*
This film stresses the importance of good teeth and the effect of poor teeth upon general health. It also shows how to care for teeth.
O W I—Army Film.

d. *The World We Want to Live In*
This picture is a plan to preserve national unity by combatting religious and racial intolerance.
National Conference of Christians and Jews.
Motion Picture Bureau—Y. M. C. A., 347 Madison Avenue, New York City.

e. *We Are All Brothers*
A film strip based on the pamphlet, *Races of Mankind.* It is accompanied by a brochure. Can be purchased for $1.00.
Stanley-Bowmar Co., 2067 Broadway, New York City.

f. *Don't Be a Sucker.*
This picture depicts the technique used by Hitler to divide the people. It makes a plea for us to be on guard against those who spread hate.
O W I—Army film.

Description of Two Programs

1. *"We Are All Brothers"*

a. *A Class Project*
After completing a unit of work on *The People of Africa* Mrs. Brahdy and her 7B class used the film strip, *We Are All Brothers* which is based on the pamphlet, *Races of Mankind.* During the unit of work, the children had become interested in the problem of prejudice. The film strip was used to give the boys scientific data with which to meet the challenge. After a detailed study of the film strip, with many periods devoted to discussion, the class prepared it for presentation in the auditorium.

b. *A Visual-Aids Assembly Program*
This program was introduced by one of the boys who gave the reasons why 7B1 thought the other boys in the school might gain something from the film strip. The members of the four committees—Physical Characteristics of Peoples, Customs and Language, Intelligence, Beliefs and Prejudices—then presented the film, explaining the frames in simplified form.

When the film strip was finished, audience participation was invited. First the boys of 7B1 asked the following five questions:
(1) What does this film aim to teach?
(2) Does your bone structure, blood type or color have anything to do with race? Give reasons for your answer.
(3) Does race determine intelligence? Why?
(4) Is any race naturally warlike and vicious? Give examples.
(5) What can you do to help combat race prejudice?
Then the audience directed questions to a panel of six boys of 7B1. It was evident from the discussion that the film strip had stimulated the boys' thinking about why they had certain prejudices.

2. *"Don't Be a Sucker"*

a. *Notice on Teachers' Bulletin Board*
Don't Be a Sucker
This picture traces the fascist techniques of using racial and religious hatred to divide a country. What happened in Europe where racial and religious prejudice triumphed may happen here unless we are on guard against those who spread hate.
In discussing this film stress the need for the unity of all democratic people throughout the entire world. Our nation was built on the idea of freedom for all. Let's keep it that way. A free world must be free from religious and racial hate.
Questions:
(a) What is the main idea of the film?
(b) How did the Nazis destroy democracy?
(c) What conditions usually help to make a person prejudiced?
(d) How can you tell when a person is prejudiced?
(e) What can you do to remain a person of good will?

b. *Excerpts from Children's Compositions*
(a) "When you are in the streets do not fall for silly propaganda. In the end it does not pay."
(b) "The film showed how prejudice was instilled in the minds of the innocent. Such a thing must never happen again."
(c) "Don't let anybody that hasn't got facts try to take you off the right track. The boys of our school can prevent this by going out and telling others."
(d) "I personally will not be taken in by rumor-mongers and will try to teach my knowledge about race to others in our school and community."
(e) "If you spread hatred and discrimination, it may even lead to another war."
(f) "Don't make fun of people just because they have a different religion."
(g) "When you hear rumors, don't help spread the lies; check the facts from the radio and newspapers."

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Evaluation of the Visual-Aids Assembly Program

1. *Types of Film Chosen*
   a. In reviewing the films shown, we found that we were quite successful in obtaining the type of film we desired. Through the resourcefulness of our visual instruction director, Mr. Weintraub, and through Mr. Haskelberg and Mr. Rosenberg, we were able to procure most of these films for a small service charge, or for no charge.
   b. Of our films on *International Understanding,* two were on Latin-America and one on China. Next term we expect to remedy that by expanding that part of our program to include many countries.
   c. We feel that our theme, *Building the Peace,* is of such vital importance that we plan to emphasize the same theme for the coming term. We plan to show more films that stress "International Understanding," "International Unity," and "Better Americans."

2. *What the Program Did for the Children*
   a. We feel that the children learned new values for films and that we raised the level of their choice.
   b. The children now regard the visual instruction period as a teaching and learning period.
   c. The film program gave the boys an opportunity to talk freely and to analyze their prejudices, their attitudes, and their reactions.
   d. Thinking was stimulated and through the process of self-exploration we helped our boys to grow emotionally as well as intellectually. Worthwhile attitudes were developed as evidenced by answers in discussion.

3. *What the Program Did for the Teachers*
   a. The teachers were prepared for the film in advance of the showing.
   b. They, too, now regard the visual instruction period as a part of the curriculum. Many of the films form the basis for discussion in the social studies classes and for composition in the English periods.
   c. At least twelve teachers have had an opportunity to act as discussion leaders. This is a valuable contribution to any teacher-training program in a school.
   d. Teachers have come to realize that the film can be a potent instrument in aiding them to develop worthwhile attitudes in their pupils.

4. *How the Program Will Be Improved*
   a. Choose one discussion leader for each grade.
   b. These leaders are to have a free period running parallel through the program so that they will all be free at the same time.
   c. This period is to be used to preview films and evolve questions. This will give the discussion leaders an opportunity to unify their thinking on the film and to plan their objectives.
   d. When there is no new film to preview, this period will be used for the purpose of improving our technique in conducting film forums.

Since this report was written we have incorporated these plans into our program.

Other Phases of Visual Aid Program

1. *Youthbuilders Club*
   The Youthbuilders, under their leader, Mr. Rosenberg, had two worthwhile film experiences.
   a. To help them in their solution of the problem, *How Can We Combat Juvenile Delinquency in our Neighborhood?,* they were shown one of the Human Relations films—the *"Dead End Kids"* sequence. Among the reasons for delinquency mentioned in the discussion were lack of parental control, segregation, and the large number of "crime movies" shown in the neighborhood.
   b. The club participated in the Junior High School Film Forum at the Museum of Natural History. The boys led a discussion on *Children of the City,* a film which depicts the problems of three juvenile delinquents and which shows some techniques of adjustment. The film was shown to several classes in the school. One of the interesting points in the discussion was the use of the farm-school as a preventive and corrective measure.

2. *Integrated Program Classes*
   a. *Special help from the Bureau of Visual Instruction*
   To aid the six special classes, Miss Hochheimer assigned Mr. Sugarman, one of her assistants, to come to our school once a week. We also received several sound films, film strips, slides and brochures for our use for the entire term.
   b. *Unit of Work on Latin-America—8B*
   Mr. Rosenberg received a series of films from the Office of Inter-American affairs. Through an arrangement with the Bureau of Visual Instruction, he was able to keep each set of four films for a month. This enabled him to use the film when it was best correlated with his work and to show it more than once.
   c. *Unit of Work on Guidance—9A*
   Through the advice of our Guidance Counselor, Mrs. Penn, Mr. Jacobson used a series of guidance films borrowed from the Division of Educational and Vocational Guidance. These films were used with his own class in their unit of work and then shown to the other classes of the 9th year. They formed the basis of a series of discussions on *Occupations* led by Mr. Jacobson.

3. *Guidance Department*
   The film, *Personal Appearance,* was shown to the 9B boys shortly before graduation. Mrs. Penn, who led the discussion, used the film to show the boys how to choose their clothing and how to get the best value for their money. From the appearance of the boys at the graduation exercises, it was evident that the film had been effective.

4. *Classroom Work*
   a. Over fifty different films were shown to single classes. Most of them were obtained from the Junior High School Film Library.

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b. The films have been in the following fields:
   (a) Social Studies
   (b) Health Education
   (c) Science
   (d) Vocational Guidance
   (e) Latin-America
   (f) Mathematics.
c. The classroom film has stressed the subject matter of the curriculum and has been an important aid in vitalizing the classroom teaching.

CONCLUSION. This is a report of one school's conscious effort to build a visual aids program that emphasizes human relationships. Our new project for the term was the use of the "Film Forum Technique" in our visual-aids assemblies. In that phase of our program, we feel that we have made a good beginning.

We are well aware of the fact that the documentary film is generally on a mature level. Nevertheless, a good discussion leader can draw from it implications that can be reduced to the level of the junior high school pupil. No school program that is concerned with the development of the "whole child" can ignore that type of film *"that gives a moving and honest vision of man as he is today in the world, with his aspirations as well as his problems."*

It is our duty to provide our children with information and to cultivate in them attitudes that will enable them to act intelligently as citizens of a world community. We believe that we can attain these objectives more quickly and more effectively through visual aids than through any other medium now available.

Human Relations Activities— A Cooperative Project*

FOREWORD. A little more than a year ago, a borough-wide movement to bring about better intercultural relations among the people of the Borough of Richmond was launched with the formation of the Staten Island Inter-Racial Council and the Staten Island Council for Democracy. These Councils are made up of prominent educators, well known clergymen and lay leaders of different faiths and races. At the request of the Assistant Superintendent the heads of schools in the Borough of Richmond lent their wholehearted support to this laudable objective by devising plans, programs, and projects designed to implement the lofty ideals of good will and brotherhood.

The heads of schools in Districts 3 and 4 in Manhattan joined their colleagues of the Borough of Richmond in this movement by organizing plans for human relations especially suited to the heterogeneous communities of the lower East Side. The aim has been to attain the second objective in the Design for the Curriculum,

> *"to develop pride and faith in American democracy and respect for the dignity and worth of individuals and peoples regardless of race, religion, nationality, or socio-economic status,"*

by harnessing all the wholesome environmental forces of the schools and community. The activities designed to foster the best inter-faith and inter-racial relations in the schools and communities situated in these areas were many and varied in nature. It is hoped that the spirit of this program will penetrate into every community, school, and classroom situated in school districts 3, 4, 53 and 54.

GUIDING PRINCIPLES. Our program of Intercultural Education is based on the following principles:

1. The fullness of living in America and her position and influence in world affairs are conditioned by the degree of realization of the ideals of our American democracy.
2. Our country is dedicated to the complete respect for the worth and dignity of individuals and peoples. Endowed by our Creator with common rights, irrespective of race, religion, nationality, or socio-economic status, we are, indeed, a brotherhood.
3. The school, by reason of its unique position, has the solemn obligation of developing pride and faith in our American heritage and gaining for it an acceptance, not alone in theory, but in fact, in the lives of our citizens.
4. It is the duty of the school to provide experiences in living and working together harmoniously on a democratic level, as well as to develop the cultural knowledge necessary for a broad understanding of our American democratic ideals.
5. The effectiveness of the program of intercultural education is increased when the school works in cooperation with the home

* A report on Human Relations covering the calendar year 1945 in Districts 3, 4, 53, 54. Submitted to Assistant Superintendent Victor I. Burger by a committee: Isaac O. Gimprich, chairman; Abraham Rubin, Robert D. Winston, Jules Felek, Russell Grimshaw.

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and with the other social, recreational, religious, and educational agencies in the community.

6. The effectiveness of the school's program is measured in terms of the improved social attitudes and relationships in the school and in the community.

A COUNCIL FOR DEMOCRACY. The Staten Island Council for Democracy is one of the most active and potent forces for improving inter-racial and intercultural relations in the borough. Its by-laws state:

> *"The ideals of democracy, which stand as the foundation of our American System, rise above the letter of the law in the vision of a society in which men of all races, nationalities, classes and occupations live together in mutual respect and understanding."*

The Council undertakes to anticipate intercultural problems before they arise and strives to prevent them by eliminating their causes. It functions not merely in the field of education, but also in such areas as industrial relations, religion, housing, and social welfare. Teachers have eagerly assisted in making reports in all of these community activities.

More than 1000 public, private, and parochial school teachers attended on May 11, 1945, a Teachers' Institute on Intercultural Education sponsored by the Council. The purposes served by the Institute were two-fold: (1) to focus the attention of the teachers on the need for realizing the aims of our intercultural goals, and (2) to acquaint them with newly-introduced and successful techniques and materials in the field of human relations.

COOPERATION WITH EXTRA-SCHOOL AGENCIES. The Staten Island Council of Socail Agencies has a teacher representative in every active Council group including the committees on family welfare, health, and recreation. It has achieved a large measure of success chiefly because many of its programs have gained the support of the churches and social agencies of the Island. Teachers are active both as officers and members in almost every social agency on Staten Island that is in any way concerned with intercultural relations.

The best example of democratic living is the active participation of the teachers of these four districts, who give freely of their time,

energy, and money to support a Negro Canteen, a Catholic Hospital, a Jewish Center and a Protestant Social Agency.

SCHOOL-COMMUNITY COUNCILS. If we accept the premise that the objective of elementary education will be better realized by raising the tone of the child's total environment, and the premise that a school-community council is the most effective single instrument for harmonizing the child's school, home, and community relationships, it is a fair conclusion that every school ought to have such a council. School-Community councils already exist in P.S. 1, 3, 5, 8, 11, 12, 13, 14, 17, 18, 21, 29, 30, 36, 39, 41 and 42 in Richmond. Their members are drawn from all races and creeds in the community and do very noteworthy work.

As a result of the deliberations and plans of its School-Community Council, P.S. 12, Richmond, has already petitioned an afternoon recreation center to be supervised by a teacher. P.S. 3 and P.S. 39 Richmond are now striving to obtain similar facilities for their schools. This will afford a splendid opportunity for strengthening the habits of sportsmanship and fair play.

Three separate bulletins on *Cooperative Planning—School and Community* have been issued thus far to the heads of schools by the Assistant Superintendent in order to give the council members training in effective community guidance. Selected because of their leadership in social and religious organizations, council members are in a strategic position to interpret the school's program and ideals to their respective groups, and to acquaint the schools with the community's needs and problems. When the child is made aware that there is harmonious agreement in attitudes, ideals, and civic practices in the school, the home, and community, desirable social relationships will be better developed.

That there is a definite need for bringing the message of tolerance into some homes is illustrated by the following incident.

The father of a pupil in P.S. 3, Richmond, was piqued because his daughter in the fourth grade was molested on the school bus by a classmate, a Negro child. He sent to the principal an unsealed letter with his daughter in which he wrote, "I'll take so much and I will not stand by seeing my children mistreated by blacks. I would not mind if they were white." The parent was sent for, and the head of the school took him into several classrooms to observe how Negro and white children were working happily together side by side.

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After a half-hour interview this parent frankly admitted that his attitude toward the Negro was biased and constituted a menace to the very foundations of democracy. He promised to change his views and to make them conform to the American spirit.

The School-Community Council, through its Inter-racial committee, can reach more persons who may harbor intolerant views, and show them the light of truth, liberty, and equality. An integration of school and community activities will "short-circuit" bigotry in the quickest way. It will lead also to the maximum degree of reciprocal and mutual benefits to the school and community.

SCHOOLS AND HUMAN RELATIONS. To enlightened teachers and supervisors the intercultural program is no modern innovation. They had always made the school a miniature society in which pupils were taught how to respect the rights of others, and how to work and live together in the same community. During the calendar year of 1945, schools situated in the districts listed above employed a rich variety of intercultural work in their extensive programs in human relations.

An East Side school recently staged a pageant called *The Heritage of P.S. 25 Manhattan* in which children of 22 different nationalities participated. At P.S. 15, Manhattan, the children have been made familiar with some of the holidays of the different faiths represented in the community.

At Christmas time, Christian children of P.S. 11, Richmond, enacted a play about Christ, and during the same assembly period Jewish children staged a performance on Chanukah. It was a striking innovation and well calculated to inspire tolerance in growing youngsters. A few days later the teacher who presented this program received a letter from Maurice I. Rappaport, a lawyer, who wrote: "The fact that you chose the only two Jewish children in the class to explain the significance of the Chanukah festival is a direct approach toward promoting inter-faith good will. Such teaching will certainly create good will and brotherhood among the children—so necessary to the future welfare of our country."

The next issue of the magazine published by the students of J.H.S. 64 Manhattan will have as its theme *World Friendship*. Art classes have completed and are working on numerous murals and posters in the field of intercultural relationships. English and social science classes discuss the role of our country in the United Nations

Organization. A special faculty committee on Intercultural Relations prepares suggestions and procedures. It has recently made a study of the Springfield Plan, and circulated mimeographed suggestions that are particularly applicable to this school. The international nature of music and the natural sciences is emphasized to demonstrate how our lives have been enriched by the achievements of great men all over the world.

An alumnus of P. S. 12, convalescing in the U. S. Naval Hospital, Pensacola, Florida, after learning that his former school is interested in an intercultural program, sent numerous tolerance pamphlets and booklets distributed at the educational service center of the naval hospital. Among the materials received by the school were the following interesting titles: *Tolerance is Americanism*—Edward S. Scheiberling, National Commander of the American Legion; *Here's What I Say*—Humphrey Bogart; *Prejudice—Our Postwar Battle*—Reprint from Look magazine; *They Got the Blame*—True Comics; *Race Hate*—Frank Murphy, Justice of U. S. Supreme Court.

P. S. 14 Richmond uses sound motion pictures to acquaint its pupils with the customs and culture of Russia, India, China and the Pan-American Countries. P. S. 30 Richmond recently had 85 parents present during a morning assembly program in which songs and dances of other lands were featured.

The children of P. S. 160 Manhattan, in cooperation with Miss Lenz, Librarian at Seward Park Library, are contributing money for the purchase of books to be sent in the name of the school to the war-ravaged countries of Europe. They exchange letters with "Pen Pals" across the Atlantic.

These are but a few gleanings of the splendid program in intercultural education that have been featured in the schools of Staten Island and lower Manhattan during the past year.

GOALS FOR TEACHER. Some of the major objectives which teachers should keep in mind in order to develop proper feeling, thinking and acting in the field of intercultural understanding are:

1. Eliminate first any prejudices within himself.
2. Maintain the scientific attitude in dealing with intercultural problems.
3. Know and understand pupils through a careful study of the cultural composition of the community.

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4. Promote the realization that the greatness of America is based largely upon the cultural contributions of many groups that are united, though not identical.

5. Develop democratic citizenship through practices within the school.

CONCLUSION. These have been some of the activities and achievements in Districts 3, 4, 53 and 54 during the period in which the program has been in effect. The intercultural activities described in this report are the result of the cooperative planning and participation of interested community leaders, parents, supervisors, teachers and children.

Our objective has been to make the program reach every aspect of the child's environment so that he might develop the ideal to—

"stand firm against covert movements which seek to destroy and weaken our American system by fomenting class, industrial, racial, and religious friction and hatred." (*By-Laws, S.I. Council for Democracy.*)

Our goal has been to arrive at some common meaning of democracy, to inculcate in the child a feeling for the democratic way of life, and to give him frequent opportunity to live it—in and out of school.

New and better practices and avenues of approach in intercultural education are continuously being sought in order to extend the gains already made. The combined effort of school, people, religious educators, and civic leaders will make our objective—the Brotherhood of Man—a reality.

High Points

THE ANTIQUARIAN'S CORNER

Teachers in the Roman world were generally poor or of humble social standing, but there were some who either achieved wealth or advanced to high public office, reaching even senatorial rank. The lives of these teachers and of others who attained fame were considered so noteworthy that Suetonius (about 79-140 A.D.), author of *The Lives of the Caesars,* included biographies of grammarians and rhetoricians in another collection, *De Viris Illustribus,* from which most of the following stories are taken.

Among the more affluent teachers was a certain Quintus Remmius Palaemon, a former slave who changed his position in life from *pedagogue* in its ancient sense, *a leader of boys to school,* to *pedagogue* in its modern meaning. While waiting at the school to which he accompanied his master's son, he listened to the lessons and in this way acquired an education himself. After his liberation, he opened a school at Rome to which he attracted a multitude of scholars because of his remarkable ability, in spite of very bad character ratings by Tiberius and Claudius who openly affirmed that no one was less fitted to educate the young. His earnings ran to 400,000 sesterces, about $20,000, a year, with approximately the same return from private investments. If the reader wishes to estimate the modern take-home value of this income, he is reminded of the old economic saw that the purchasing value of money was a few times greater in those days. Yet Palaemon was unable to live within this huge income and Suetonius, as an indication of his love of luxury and high living, relates that Palaemon went to the baths several times a day!

Another teacher who prospered was Sextus Clodius of Sicily, whose sharp tongue and witticisms so appealed to Mark Antony that the latter employed him as his tutor. When Antony became consul he rewarded his professor of wit with a parcel out of the public domain, about 2,000 acres tax-free. Cicero, very bitter about this payment at public expense for a course in joke-writing, fulminated against it in his undelivered *Second Philippic,* charging that Antony had paid too high a price for learning nothing. This low opinion of Clodius' gags and Antony's sense of humor may have stemmed from professional jealousy since Cicero himself had a reputation for sharp wit which was offensive to many of his contemporaries.

Not all the teachers of high repute who numbered public officials and national leaders among their friends were so bent on acquiring property. The tutor of Cassius and Brutus, an ex-slave named Staberius Eros, was so generous that he received into his school without payment of any fees the children of the victims of Sulla's proscriptions, thereby instituting an early form of free scholarships.

Staberius had been manumitted or freed from slavery because of his great devotion to learning. In reading the roster of famous teachers in Suetonius' list, one is struck by the numerous examples

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of slaves whose masters set them free out of respect for their learning. One may look upon this as a peculiar ancient method of endowing a school. For example, some one paid 700,000 sesterces or $35,000 for the learned slave Lutatius Daphnis, who was soon liberated.

Grammarians and rhetoricians were so highly esteemed because their training was indispensable to a certain stratum of Roman society, the young men of the upper orders who had to study oratory in preparation for a public career. Yet, when their studies were introduced to Italy, the teachers of these subjects met with great obstacles. In fact, the rhetoricians were forbidden to live in Rome by a decree of the senate passed in 161 B.C. Fundamentalists and supporters of the *status quo* in education gave their reasons in an edict of the censors, 92 B.C.

In the best modern "our attention has been called" manner the edict begins, *"It has been reported to us that there are men who are setting up a new type of education, and that our young men are flocking to their schools, that these men have taken the name of Latin rhetoricians, and that young men spend days of idleness in their schools."*

The age-old conflict between old and new crops up in the next part of the edict. *"Our ancestors decided what they wished their children to learn and into whose schools they should go. These new practises which go beyond the customs and character of our forefathers neither please us nor do they seem right to us."*

The ban did not appear to have been long enforced for teachers of grammar and rhetoric invaded Rome in great numbers during the first century B.C.

Among the grammarians was Lucius Orbilius Pupillus of Beneventum who turned to teaching after a career in the cavalry where he may have learned the theory of discipline for which he has been immortalized by the poet Horace as an unswerving advocate of the "Spare the rod and spoil the child" school of education. The youthful Horace, who studied with great distaste the works of an early author, Livius Andronicus, conferred upon his stern taskmaster, the epithet *"plagosus,"* "the flogger." To this day a hard disciplinarian is a *plagosus Orbilius* to the *literati,* from the passage in the *Epistles,* Book II, Number 1, which has been read by students for 2,000 years:

Not that I'd act the zealot, and desire
To fling the works of Livius in the fire,
Which once Orbilius, old and not too mild,
Made me repeat by whipping when a child.
—*Translated by John Conington*

Orbilius exercised his violent temper not only upon his pupils, but also upon rival scholars whom he assailed on every occasion. His reputation as a whipper of pupils is corroborated by a line from the works of an obscure author, Domitius Marsus, quoted by Suetonius:

Si quos Orbilius ferula scuticaque cecidit.
"Whomever Orbilius flayed with rod and lash."

His tongue and his ferule must have kept pupils away, for Suetonius assures us that *"he taught with greater renown than remuneration,"* and Orbilius himself wrote that he lived in a garret, *"sub tegulis,"* or under the roof-tiles. It is too bad that the book written by Orbilius has not been preserved, an early treatise on parent-teacher relationships, in which he may have stated his side. All we know of it is that he complained *"about the wrongs which teachers suffer from the indifference or vanity of parents."* In spite of his acerbity, Orbilius was not without honor in his home town of Beneventum, where a statue of him was erected before the capitol.

Of a different character was Marcus Verrius Flaccus, who tried methods new in his day. To stimulate the ability of his pupils he held competitions and donated a beautiful or rare book as a prize to the winner. Soon he came to the attention of the Emperor Augustus who engaged him to teach his nephews and allowed him to move his school to the palace grounds. Realizing the value of small classes, Augustus stipulated that no more pupils should be admitted. Verrius received a salary of 100,000 sesterces, about $5,000 a year. He too rated a statue, which was erected at Praeneste.

Another teacher on Augustus' payroll was Gaius Melissus, who was hired to put the library in the Colonnade of Octavia in order. New Melissus had been a slave, and his literary work, a collection of jokes, would have been a great boon to the future Cerfs of the world, had it not disappeared. Since Melissus compiled 150 volumes of *Ioci*, anyone trying to stop him would have had to give up.

The course of turning to other occupations while waiting for an appointment as a teacher was reversed in the case of Marcus Valer-

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ius Probus who wanted very keenly to become a centurion in the army. To while away the boring months or years of waiting he amused himself by reading the neglected works of early authors. Soon he became so interested that he edited, criticized, and revised the texts. Apparently he never did receive that appointment as a centurion.

The last and most colorful character in my own selection from Suetonius is the versatile Marcus Pomponius Marcellus, a specialist in the study of the Latin language, of which he was a most pedantic critic. He occasionally practised law as a side-line, and in this pursuit he carried over the habits of the lecture halls to the courts. Suetonius tells of a case in which Marcellus persistently corrected his opponent's grammar to the latter's obvious annoyance. Finally, the lawyer for the harassed party asked the judges for a postponement on the grounds that his client needed time to engage an expert grammarian since it looked as if the case were turning into an argument not over points of law but over points of grammar.

Marcellus had also been a boxer, a fact which led one wit to depreciate his knowledge of words, which the sarcastic underrater alleged came from the head of a boxer who knew only the "lingo" of the ring like "Duck, it's coming right at you."

His boxing experiences may have given Marcellus the courage to belie the tradition of the timid teacher and to hit out at the most redoubtable adversary. He once dared to criticize even the emperor Tiberius for the misuse of a word. An apologist for the emperor, a certain Ateius Capito, argued that the word in question was a good Latin word, and that even if it were not, it was now going to be one. In this line of reasoning Capito anticipated a similar *bon mot* by a later ruler, Sigismund I, Emperor of the Holy Roman Empire, at the Council of Constance (1414-1418). When a prelate found fault with the emperor's Latin, Sigismund replied, *"Ego sum Rex Romanus et supra grammaticam."* ("I am king of the Romans and above grammar.") History does not record the churchman's answer but Suetonius has handed down the bold counter-blow by Marcellus:

"Capito lies, Caesar, for you can grant citizenship to men but not to a word!

MORRIS ROSENBLUM Samuel J. Tilden High School

OCCUPATIONAL EDUCATION: AN EXPERIMENT FOR THE SLOW LEARNER*

Introduction

The following experiment was begun in September, 1945, and has endeavored to present a program for slow learners that will enable them to adjust occupationally. We do not mean to have occupational adjustment our sole goal. *Occupational adjustment is one of the interrelated individual goals of the accepted program for special classes.* Education without occupational adjustment is incomplete, and conversely, if occupational adjustments are narrowly or popularly defined, then education based solely on that is incomplete.

Education for the occupational adjustment of the mentally retarded involves five steps:

(1) *Vocational Information*—An overview of the whole economic structure and the relationships between the different types of work and the welfare of society as a whole.

(2) *Vocational Guidance*—The measuring of individual qualifications against specific job requirements.

(3) *Vocational Training*—Basic training, both manual and non-manual in area skills.

(4) *Vocational Placement*—Actual job placement. (At the present time we are using the existing agencies. The U. S. Employment Service has been very cooperative. The B.C.R.M.D. *has* been trying to coordinate the work between special education and *this* agency.)

(5) *Social Placement*—Adjustment on the job and in society for as long a period as might be needed.

Organization of Classes

We have 6 classes each having a register of 22. Classes are organized on a chronological age basis. Criteria:

(1) Chronological age, 13-17.

(2) I. Q.—under 80 group test; under 85 individual test.

Every pupil was given a Pintner General Ability Test—Intermediate form—before placement in the unit.

(3) Reading grade under 5.0.

Every pupil was given a Stanford Achievement Test—Intermediate form before placement in the unit.

(4) Emotional stability—No gross emotional instability (a candidate whose problem is emotional rather than mental, with a few exceptions was not recommended for placement). Every pupil was given the California Test of Personality.

We have forty-five pupils in the unit who have come from the classes for children with retarded mental development. The other seventy-eight pupils come from the adjustment classes of our junior high school.

* Experiment conducted at Junior High School 139, Manhattan.

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Program

(A) *Weekly*

(1) Academic—18 periods
- (a) language skills—8 periods
- (b) arithmetic skills—4 periods
- (c) occupational skills—6 periods

(2) Non-Academic—17 periods
- (a) vocational training—6 periods (job area—see V Vocational Training)
- (b) avocational training—4 periods (shop—industrial)
- (c) health education—5 periods
- (d) assembly—1 period
- (e) music—1 period

Our classes go to the woodworking, printing, electric-wiring and sign-painting shops.

(B) *Teacher's Program*

(1) Official teacher responsible for all academic subjects

(2) Specialist on vocational training responsible for 6 periods with children from all classes

(3) Regular teachers of shops responsible for 4 periods with children from all classes

(4) Physical education teachers have our classes for one period a week. Official teachers have our classes for other 4 periods of health education.

(5) Official teacher assists with own class in music and assembly.

Organization for Instruction

(1) Language skills—Group work according to individual abilities.

(2) Arithmetic skills—Group work according to individual abilities.

(3) Occupational skills—study of cores
- (a) 7th Year (Core V)—Study of job areas
- (b) 8th Year (Core VI)—Choosing, getting and holding a job
- (c) 9th Year (Core VII)—Spending one's income
- (d) 16-17 Year olds (Core VIII)—The worker as a citizen and a social being.

Vocational Training

All the vocational training is exploratory. Every class spends six weeks in each vocational area.

(1) 7th Year—each child is given an opportunity to measure his abilities against the skills necessary in the areas of work studied in Core V.

(2) 8th Year—the pupil begins to select those areas of work in which he is most interested.

(3) 9th Year—the pupil is permitted to choose an area of work for specialization.

At the present time in our unit all the classes are at the 7th-year stage. This is necessary in order to acquaint all the boys with the job areas.

Vocational Training and Job Analysis in

(1) Automobile Maintenance
(2) Food Trades
(3) Household Mechanics
(4) Garment Trades
(5) Personal Service
(6) Hospital Service

In the first five areas listed above the teacher of each area conducts the class. In the Hospital Service, a new area begun in February, the Home Nursing Division of the American Red Cross is instructing our boys in six weeks' courses.

Our shop equipment, limited as it is, was obtained through the cooperation of our principal, Dr. Zuckerman, our teachers, our parents and the Board of Health, and the American Red Cross.

Supervision and Administration of the Unit

Responsibilities of Chairman

(1) Observation of teachers
(2) Contacts with parents
(3) Discipline
(4) Referrals
(5) Conference teachers
(6) Furniture, equipment, supplies
(7) Supplies

Conclusions and Recommendations

What has been achieved?

(1) Our attendance has shown a very great improvement.

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(2) The rapport between teacher and pupil is excellent. The enthusiasm and interest on the part of the boys toward this new program has been the greatest factor in developing this rapport.

(3) Our reading, arithmetic and language skills are showing growth.

(4) The personal appearance of our boys has shown a tremendous change.

Our Aims

(A) Remote

(1) To train these boys to become members of society in which contribution rather than mere participation will be their role.

(2) To train these boys in habits, attitudes and skills which will enable them to adjust to occupation and to society; e.g., the adjustment the boy makes to the freedom of his first wages is a part of his occupational education.

(B) Immediate

(1) To analyze and study the job requirements in the job areas we are studying.

(2) To acquire the occupational and academic skills necessary to understand how to "choose the job, get the job and hold the job."

(3) To develop an attitude of self-analysis in order to determine self-employable potentials, and compare these with the job requirements.

(4) To train the pupil in proper habits and attitudes in "spending one's income."

(5) To train the pupil to understand his responsibilities as a "worker, a citizen and a social being."

STELLA M. COHN Junior High School 139, Manhattan

BIZARRE BAZAAR

It went off all right. It took a little over an hour and a half; everyone had a good time; and we made $157.90 for the G. O. I wish you could have been in the girls' gym at the beginning of the seventh period. Everything started happening at once. The tables and chairs came up from the cafeteria; the pictures went up on the walls; the model stands were set in place; signs were fastened to the tables; the presses were set up; displays spread out; seventy-five students were working at once—this seemed to be not only chaos,

but chaos running amuck. But it wasn't. Starting with an empty gymnasium we had a bazaar open for business in a little over an hour.

This was an Art Bazaar. The idea was to get the student interested in the art work of the school, to show them their artists at work, to increase the popularity of art and, as long as we were at it, to make a little money for the G. O.

PLANNING. We gave ourselves a two-month head start. The bazaar took place in December; in October we started asking elective-art students if they would like to contribute drawings and paintings to sell at a bazaar. They liked the idea so much that they contributed about seventy or eighty excellent pieces. But that was just the beginning. We canvassed the classes for ideas for novelties that they thought students would buy. In they came, hand-painted hairbands, novelty pins, boxes, bottles, "worry birds," flower pots and I don't know what-all—and Christmas Cards! The students, both required art and elective art students, contributed about a hundred hand-painted Christmas cards in envelopes, some with hand-painted lining.

But let's get back for a moment to the organization. In the first place all the flat work had to be matted. We taught one boy to do matting and by now he is practically a professional. He must have cut about two hundred and fifty mats. He worked every day for two months cutting mats in his spare time. Why all those mats? Well, we had about 150 sketches and prints in a grab bag, each one of which had to be matted and wrapped. These were over and above the regular pictures. (A squad of girls did the wrapping.) They were all put into a large carton and sold for ten cents a "grab." While we are on the grab bag, I might as well explain the set-up of the bazaar.

THE BAZAAR ITSELF. We brought up twenty tables and chairs from the cafeteria. These were set up around the gym. They were all covered with large sheets of bogus paper stapled to their cork composition tops. The ticket booth was put up outside the gym. Off to one side we had two tables, where cake and cider were sold for ten cents.

On the tables inside we set up the etching press with three students turning out prints; the block print press with three more students

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at that; the Christmas cards, the novelties, the jewelry, the auction, the silk screen, the mat cutter, the wrappers, the caricaturists, the portrait artists, the fashion sketches, the grab bag and the stationery. Large cardboard signs on thin wooden posts were fastened to the legs of each table telling what was going on at each table. In two corners of the gym were platforms which posed attractive fashion models against screen backgrounds spotlighted from the side. Two students played dance records all during the show, while three others went about with large signs bearing the caricatures of Crosby, Sinatra and Haymes. It cost a penny to vote for your favorite and some six hundred votes were cast. A running score was marked on a large portable blackboard. Crosby won. Yes, sir, pop, and by a big margin.

Now almost everything was for sale and someone had to sell the items and be responsible for an accurate accounting of the sales. This is how it worked. One salesman or salesgirl was assigned to each of the ten wall sections where they were in charge of about fifteen pictures each. (These salesgirls were also responsible for attaching the pictures to the wall with masking tape.) We had a salesgirl at a table to sell prints, Christmas cards, novelties, etc. Each salesgirl had a cash box (a painted cigar box) and a notebook and pencil to record sales. At the end of the day all cash was taken to the ticket booth where it was turned in and checked.

When we opened for business at about 3:15, there was a grand rush. Business was good. The customers bought their tickets at the booth. Then they bought cake and cider before they went in. They went through the gym door and showed their tickets. The tickets, by the way, were school pennant stickers done in silk screen on gummed paper, price ten cents. A student passed the ticket holders into the bazaar. When they got inside, they were met by the grab bag. To the left and right were ten fashion students sketching the models. As they went on they bought Christmas cards or had their portrait painted by five artists working at top speed, or they bought caricatures of themselves or teachers or prominent public characters. Further on they saw the etchings and linoleum prints being done, twenty-five cents each, matted at another table for fifteen cents, wrapped at another table free of charge. At the far end there were extra silk screen pennants sold for five cents, and stationery. Original designs on the stationery were by one of the art students. The cuts were given to us by the engraver who does our school

publications. The printing was done free by the printer; stationery sold out in a half an hour. At four o'clock an auction took place in the far corner complete with mallet and voice. "Going, going, gone"—lots of excitement at that. Special paintings, carvings and novelties went for bargain prices.

So there they were, dancing, buying cider and cake, having their portraits drawn, watching the artists, voting for their favorite crooner, marveling at the decorations (cut-outs fastened on the basketball backboards) buying pictures, stationery, prints, grabs, and having a wonderful time.

At five o'clock it was over. The cash went to the booth. The tables and chairs went back to the cafeteria. The presses went upstairs. The unsold pictures went back to the Art Office. The cider kegs were put away and all that was left was a handful of students and teachers weary but happy.

Now let's clear up a few of the details:

How did the students work so well and efficiently together?

Answer: Each worker had his assignment written out in detail and recorded on a master sheet. All were under the direction of a student floor-manager.

How were tickets sold?

Answer: They were sold in the home rooms one day before the bazaar as well as at the bazaar. This eased the rush for tickets.

Who made the tickets?

Answer: Mr. Cascio, art teacher, and his silk-screen squad.

Who arranged publicity?

Answer: Mr. Sussman's commercial advertising class turned out some forty first-rate posters that were the talk of the school two weeks in advance of the bazaar. Mr. Cascio's squad turned out a hundred or more question marks on oak-tag cards. They had the students guessing until they were taken down and "ART BAZAAR, DECEMBER 12" was added (silkscreen, again.) And besides wasn't every art student talking about it?

How many attended?

Answer: About seven hundred (students, parents and teachers.)

How were articles priced?

Answer: Student typists typed large sheets of prices from ten cents to $1.00. These were cut up into individual tags. One afternoon three art teachers stayed and determined prices. The tags were attached to the articles with paper clips.

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What were the teachers doing?

Answer: Now you've asked a good question. Five teachers were assigned from the office to handle the crowd. Mr. Sussman (Art) took charge of cash. Mrs. Hecht (Art) took charge of sketch artists. Mr. Thom (Art) supervised decorations, his own. Mr. Dicke (Shop) trained boys in moving the tables, chairs and cider kegs. Mr. Bovin (Art Metal) had jewelry made for sale by his classes. Miss Flax (Home Economics) had her girls make the cake. Mrs. Mayer (Home Economics) looked after the serving. Miss Ruth (Art) supervised all sales. Mr. Cascio (Art) took care of all the silk-screen work, the pre-bazaar sale of pennants and the printing of the stationery. Miss Coghlan (Girls' Health Education) gave us the gym for the last two periods of the day by sending her students to the auditorium to see a movie on hygiene. She also supplied girls to play records for the dancing. Miss Schrage (Speech and Dramatics) supplied two of the stage crew to take care of the spot lights. Mr. Zisowitz (English) was the auctioneer.

Why did everyone, teachers and students, work so cheerfully, so faithfully and so generously?

Answer: I don't know. I guess it's just that we have exceptional teachers and students at Forest Hills High School.

Now what?

Answer: Well, it was a great success. It could be an annual affair. It was a lot of work, but a lot of fun. Anyway, I wish you could have been in the girls' gym at the beginning of the seventh period, December 12, 1945. It looked like chaos run amuck. But it wasn't.

WILLIAM F. KIRK — Forest Hills High School

NOTES ON THE TEACHING OF APPRECIATION OF POETRY

One characteristic of most readers—readers not merely of poetry but of any kind of writing—is to read into the printed page things which are not there, and to miss things which are there. This proceeds from confusion and results in greater confusion. Perhaps our teachers of poetry, by concentrating on getting clear what exists within the limits of a poem, instead of dwelling at length on the connotations and body of fact relevant to, but, strictly speaking, *outside* the poem, might be able to check this tendency. In so doing,

it seems not unlikely that they will enable the student to approach appreciation of a poem more closely than he is likely to otherwise.

SYMBOLS IN POETRY. Of course, most poetry is symbolic, consists of symbols. However, in our eagerness to point the symbolism, it is possible to turn too little attention on the material of the symbols; and, if the material of the symbols is not clearly perceived, the symbolism cannot be other than cloudy.

Two poems read in junior high school literature classes may be cited. *Nod,* by Walter de la Mare, refers, as the introductory note asserts, to the imaginary character generally known as "the Sandman." Yet, nowhere in the poem, except by distant implication (if at all), is the legend of the Sandman present. Instead, we have a sort of *parallel* symbol: sleep is brought, not by an old man sprinkling sand on the tired eyes of children, but by an old shepherd, Nod, who drives a flock of lambs (children) before him to the fold (sleep).

I have observed, in teaching this poem, that the mention of the Sandman has tended to confuse, rather than to clarify, the meaning of the poem, and, hence, interferes with the appreciation of de la Mare's fantasy. Perhaps, if the Sandman legend were brought in *later,* as collateral material, it would have a certain value.

Consider, too, the poem *O Captain! My Captain,* Walt Whitman's lament for Lincoln. The fact that Lincoln is the subject of the poem, while of course extremely important to an understanding of the *circumstances* under which the poem was written, is apt to interfere with an understanding of the poem itself. In the poem itself, Lincoln is nowhere explicitly mentioned. Ostensibly, the poem is a lament for the dead captain of a ship which has just successfully made port after a long and arduous voyage. In order to enable the class most fully to appreciate the poet's art in this case, the picture the poet paints must be brought out clearly before attention can be turned to the symbolic value of the picture.

THE CRUX OF THE POEM. It may seem that I am laboring a rather obvious point here, but I think it is an important point which deserves to be made again and again: that is, that the crux of a poem is within the poem itself. The importance of a poem is not merely, or even mostly, symbolic—in what it *means;* for, if it were, we might profitably dispose of the reading of poetry entirely, and

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simply read and discuss prose paraphrases. The whole point of poetry is that it says some things that cannt be translated into prose. This is what MacLeish meant in his famous

"A poem should not mean
But be";

although the poetic hyperbole with which he made his assertion has led some of his interpreters astray, into thinking that he was simply attempting to revive the extreme "Art for Art's Sake" ideal, or even advocating the total absence of meaning in poetry, a sort of surrealistic Muse. Mr. Macleish's own poetry repudiates this interpretation.

I am suggesting that the teacher of poetry appreciation (and I am suggesting this as much to myself as to other teachers) constantly keep in the forefront of his mind this essential fact: that a poem should be taught as a poem first, and as a *fact* itself, more important than any fact which may be useful in a discussion of the poem—an *artifact*, if you will.

In support of this position, I may cite the poet-anthologists Cleanth Brooks, Jr., and Robert Penn Warren (editors of *Understanding Poetry: An Anthology for College Students*), who say, *"Emphasis should be kept on the poem as a poem"* and the young Anglo-Irish poet-critic, Louis MacNeice, who, in his study of the poetry of W. B. Yeats, writes:

> *A poem does not exist in a vacuum, but a poem at the same time is a unity, a creation. Criticism based on the assumption that a poem is a mere* translation *of facts outside itself is vicious criticism. The facts outside a poem, the facts which occasion a poem, are no longer the same facts when they have been fused into a poem.*

STUDYING POETRY AS POETRY. I suppose that many people shy away from the discussion of a poem as a poem, rather than as (in MacNeice's words) *"a mere translation of facts outside itself,"* for one, or both, of two reasons. There is some feeling that what goes on inside a poem is so great a mystery that to touch it would almost be sacrilegious: perhaps this is a relic of the days when poetry was considered a kind of magic. And there is also the feeling that the mystery of poetry is not easily dispelled; perhaps too many people labor under what MacNeice calls *"the false assumption that the outlines of a lyric must be blurred"* (an assumption, truly, that even some poets have labored under!).

Let us go back, nevertheless, to the two poems I have already mentioned, *Nod* and *O Captain! My Captain!* and, taking them as our samples, see how a poem may be discussed as a poem.

The conspicuous thing about *Nod* is the slumber-mood. How is this mood established?

First, the time of day is *named* three times, each time a bit differently: "twilight", "evening", "night."

The time of day is *painted* with *color-words*. We see the progress of the sunset—"rose" in the first stanza, "gold" in the second, "shadows" in the fourth.

The picture is not yet complete. As the painter fills in his painting with slight yet significant brush-strokes for a culminating effect, so de la Mare brings in details, incidents of twilight (suggesting, incidentally, the English countryside with which this poet is so familiar). The shepherd is "drenched with dew"; "the sun's last beam leans low"; "from their sand the conies creep"; "the birds that fly in heaven Flock singing home to sleep"; and there is, in the last stanza, "an arch of stars."

De la Mare, like every poet who knows his art, does not neglect the power of rhythm to carry the picture closer to the mind's eye. The rhythm is appropriate to the mood; it is a slow rhythm; and the basis of the slow rhythm is the use of one-syllable words, which inevitably slow up the poetic line.

Turning to Whitman's *O Captain! My Captain!*, we find another mood: a more complex mood. Here is not a single effect, but a mixed effect. It is really quite interesting to notice how the poet balances the joy felt by the American people at the end of the fratricidal Civil War with the grief they were compelled simultaneously to experience at the assassination of the man who had brought the nation through that war and to a successful conclusion of it. The balance occurs within each stanza.

In the first two stanzas, there is an exact division: four lines expressing rejoicing, immediately followed by four lines expressing grief.

The two emotions require two different rhythms, naturally. The joyful verses have a rapid rhythm, the sad verses a slow rhythm, slowed by one-syllable words.

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The last stanza introduces a variation. Five of the lines in this stanza, among them the first two, emphasize the mood of grief.

The whole story of the poem is told in the first stanza; no new information is brought in later. But there is an accumulation of detail that produces a heaping effect, so that each stanza counts and adds to the solemnity of the poem. But even to the last, there is the dramatic contrast of the rejoicing bells set against the gloom of the Captain's death.

I do not believe, and my classroom experience has not revealed, that the discussion of poetry along the lines suggested is too advanced for junior high school classes. It does call attention to the technique of poetry; yet it is not too technical. Above all, it constantly turns the attention of the pupil reader back to the poem itself.

GERARD P. MEYER — Corona Junior High School

"WIDE READING VS. INTENSIVE DRILL"

My experiment,* contrasting two methods of approaching the problem of reading on the high school level, was severely criticized in the May issue of *High Points* by Mr. Joseph Justman. He made three major charges in his article, concluding with "one final point." I should like to state briefly why his first charge is illogical, his second questionable, his third unfair, and his "final point" irrelevant.

Although the experimental groups were equated for age and IQ, Mr. Justman found a "major inadequacy" in the fact that no attempt was made to secure equivalence in initial reading status. This "failure," he writes, "invalidates the entire treatment of relative improvement and casts doubt upon the resulting implications for classroom practice advanced by the study."

RELATIVE IMPROVEMENT. To refute this rather sweeping charge, it is necessary only to point out that *relative* improvement can be measured with complete accuracy despite any differences in initial standings, provided, of course, that the differing factors are not dynamic or cumulative in effect. Thus, although Johnny brings twenty marbles to the tournament while Steve begins playing with

* *Can Reading Ability Be Improved More Effectively Through Wide Reading or Intensive Drill? High Points*, Feb., 1946, pp. 21-37.

only seven, it is nevertheless possible for Mr. Justman to measure their comparative success at the end of the game by counting their respective increases. In my experiment, the groups were equated for the two dynamic factors, age and IQ. Since their relative improvement in vocabulary and paragraph comprehension was measured, not by a comparison of final scores, but by determining the *differences* between initial and final achievements, Mr. Justman's belief that the groups had to be identical in beginning ability is illogical.

The second criticism is an assertion that the Nelson-Denny Reading Test is not an adequate measure of the ability of retarded readers in the lower grades of the high school. The only evidence offered to support this statement is the fact that the control group, composed of ninth-graders of average IQ, tested below the ninth grade norms *"not only at the beginning, but at the end of the experimental term."*

READING ABILITY AND I.Q. Can Mr. Justman say why these students should not have tested lower than ninth-grade norms? While there is a high correlation between IQ and *vocabulary*, there is no scientifically-demonstrated correlation between IQ and *reading ability*. Bearing significantly on this point is the fact that the control (or unguided) group made considerable growth in vocabulary, but no progress in paragraph comprehension. Both experimental groups, lower in IQ, made less progress in vocabulary, but much more in paragraph comprehension—the essence of reading ability. It is amusing that one of the most striking revelations of the experiment —namely, that normal students, reading freely without educational guidance, make little real progress in reading ability—should be interpreted by Mr. Justman as a "major inadequacy" of the study. Mr. Justman's thinking is especially difficult to follow when he proceeds to draw certain inferences of his own from the test scores, e.g., *"Inspection of the individual data given creates a strong impression that . . . the poor student makes the greater gain."* Does he not recall that these data are derived from a test that he has, a few sentences previous, condemned as "inadequate"? Until he can offer objective evidence that the well-standardized norms of the Nelson-Denny Test, which extend down into the elementary grades, are invalid and unscientific, Mr. Justman's own thinking will have to remain questionable.

STATISTICAL SIGNIFICANCE. The third charge, to put it

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with restraint, is unfair. Mr. Justman declares that the results obtained cannot be considered a clear proof of the relative superiority of one method or the other because of the lack of *statistical* significance.

My original article made no claim to clear and conclusive proof. It indicated quite clearly that the experimenter was aware of the small classroom groups with which, perforce, he had to work and the consequent weakening of the statistical proof. The six implications of the experiment were listed after this prefatory statement:

> *The writer feels that the experiment should be repeated—with larger, more closely equated groups, over a longer interval of time. The following conclusions, therefore, while considered valid implications of the present findings, are offered only tentatively.*

It does not seem fair for the critic to point out as a "major inadequacy" a claim that was never made and a deficiency that was freely admitted.

Mr. Justman makes a "final point." It is unfortunate, he writes, that no attempt was made to determine what type of student made the greater progress with each method. It would be interesting, too, he adds, to compare the relative effectiveness of a combination of techniques with the application of intensive drill or extensive reading used alone.

These comments, legitimate and constructive suggestions if embodied in a personal letter to the classroom experimenter, are carping and irrelevant inclusions in a published article purporting to discuss "errors" and "major inadequacies" of a serious study. The present writer did not choose to seek the answers to the questions Mr. Justman raises. They would make another story—and another experiment. If Mr. Justman happens to be interested in those variations of the reading problem, he is quite at liberty to conduct his own experiments. To criticize any conscientious work that has a worthwhile aim—whether it be a novel, play, classroom lesson, or educational experiment—because it does not have some other aim that the critic regards as worthwhile is certainly irrelevant, if not presumptuous.

One cannot help but wonder at Mr. Justman's motive in putting his article together. A member of the School of Education, College of the City of New York, he writes: *"The attempt of any teacher to use his classroom as a vehicle for educational research is praiseworthy, and should be encouraged."* Is that what he was trying to do in his article?

May I, too, be permitted one "final point." I should like to apologize for the rather grandiose title of this little rejoinder. Some innocent and unsuspecting teacher, I fear, may have been lured into this unrewarding reading experience by an expectation that here he would find a careful, comprehensive discussion of two important methods of teaching remedial reading, their natures, values, materials, and techniques. If the pretensions of the title now leave him disappointed, I am truly sorry. It was Mr. Justman's title, and I simply put quotation marks around it.

MURRAY A. GOLDBERG Christopher Columbus High School

A LESSON PROCEDURE FOR MANUAL MASTERY

Of the three basic laws of learning—readiness, exercise, effect—the most important is that of effect.

When an evening school student derives satisfaction from what he has learned, that satisfaction constitutes the most potent inducement to continue with his studies. This is particularly true of the subject of shorthand, which requires constant application.

Evening school students work all day. They are physically and mentally fatigued. They need relaxation; yet they have voluntarily given this up to master a skill. In exchange, they should carry away with them at the close of each period something tangible.

They have no time for homework; all work must neecssarily be done in class. And the Gregg Manual is their only work book. Hence I construct my lesson plans for each unit upon the vocabulary of each unit.

Here is a sample procedure. I have found it effective because it helps the student, through intensive, diversified drill, to master the manual.

Aim: To teach the Nt-ND blend.

Drill: Brief forms, Unit 16.

1. Write the outlines on the board and have the class read them back in unison.
2. Dictate them slowly; tell the students to write each one as often as possible till the next is given.
3. Dictate them in mixed order rapidly; have them read back.

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As a student reads back, he spells the outline aloud. Example: correspondence k-r-e-s.

4. Tell the class to make a final check of their outlines with those on the board.

5. Give the class a one-minute speed test on a sentence containing a number of the brief forms just drilled. Example: "Our excellent correspondence will create confidence and trust in the character of our organization."

Review: Dictate the following letter:

Dear Sir: We are confident that our organization will profit by employing Mr. Brown. He has gone into a thorough study of business correspondence at college, and we feel sure that he can handle our mail order problem to our satisfaction. Very truly yours.

Motivation:

Have it read back.

2. Have the students encircle the outline INTO.

3. Ask the class: (a) What is this brief form composed of? N plus T. (b) Why do we soften the angle into a curve? Because angles slow up the writing movement. (c) Can you name any other blends we learned? MEN and TED blends. (d) What is the size of the NT blend? The size of F. (e) Give the class a one-minute penmanship drill on the execution of the NT blend.

Presentation:

1. Say to the class: "Here is a short vocabulary containing the NT blend. See how quickly you can read it. As I write an outline on the board, read it aloud."

rent, sent, print, prevent, event,
paint, entry, apparent, front, count,
inventory, winter

2. "The same stroke represents ND." See how quickly you can read the following:

land, lend, planned, band, bond,
round, around, laundry, second, signed

3. Give the class a one-minute silent reading period of the outlines just written on the board.

4. Have the students read as you point to them in mixed order.

5. Dictate the outlines; tell the students to write each one as often as possible till the next is given.

6. Have them read back from their own notes.

7. Have them make a final check with those on the board.

Application: Dictate the following sentences to the class:

1. Mr. Winter will be unable to pay the rent.
2. Have you planned something special for the event?
3. This is the second inventory we sent you.
4. We have signed a lease for the laundry.
5. You should purchase a government bond.
6. It is apparent that you made a mistake.
7. Mr. Long can paint.

(a) Write each sentence on the board as it is read back by a student.

(b) Have the students check their outlines with those on the board.

(c) Give them a two-minute corrective-drill period to practice the outlines they have written incorrectly.

Summary Letter: Dictate the following letter to the class:

Dear Sir: We sent our Mr. Land to see you about your rent. We are glad you promised to pay your rent on time this winter. Your word should be your bond, and we hope nothing will prevent you from keeping your promise. You may count on us to paint your house within two months. Very truly yours.

(a) Give the class a one-minute period in which to read the letter back silently.

(b) Write the letter on the board as it is read back by several students.

(c) Have it read back from the board by various students.

(d) Drill the class on the new vocabulary and special phrases.

(e) Redictate the letter at progressively higher speeds as time will allow.

NATHAN LEVINE Washington Irving Evening High School

ART FOR SCIENCE-MINDED BOYS

When first-term students appear in my art class at the High School of Science, they are given a pre-test to determine their level of art achievement and their attitude toward art as a subject. In their entrance examinations they have proved their capacity to work on a ninth-grade level in English and mathematics. In art, however, this pre-test (which asks for the drawing of a portrait, a group of figures in action, science apparatus and a notebook cover) usually

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reveals a range in ability from third-grade to twelfth-grade level. Every pupil admitted to the school has indicated an interest in science and mathematics. A good number of them, however, are frank to admit that this interest in our curriculum does not extend to art. Some have said that they are resigned to being considered hopeless in drawing. Others express disappointment at finding that art is a required subject (even if it is only three periods a week for two terms). Occasionally a student will ask belligerently of what use art can be to a prospective scientist.

A CHALLENGE. It is this challenge presented by the results of pre-tests given over a period of years that has stimulated experimentation with a wide variety of art projects beyond those suggested in the Art Appreciation Syllabus. The first step has been to relate certain essential skills taught in the art class to the pupils' immediate needs as science students. Thus lettering leads to planning an attractive page for a science notebook. Art reference material in this area ranges from medieval illuminated manuscripts to attractive children's books on science subjects.

THE SCIENCE NOTEBOOK. The requirement of recording science experiments in a notebook has revealed a need for the techniques of drawing scientific apparatus. An elementary lesson begins with a celluloid stencil showing the usual two-dimensional view and goes on to the three-dimensional views in cabinet and isometric drawing and in parallel and angular perspective. Growing out of these exercises are a number of related projects such as a sketching trip to the school engine room or still-life paintings of apparatus used in science experiments and hobbies.

"INVENTIONS." One assignment in this field which has proved extremely popular is an "invention" to simplify school life. These "inventions" have often shown a high degree of ingenuity and imagination. Some have been humorous in the Rube Goldberg vein, such as the helium gas balloon to carry heavy briefcases, or the inevitable "homework machines." Others have been serious, such as the idea of making textbooks of microfilm and equipping every desk with a microfilm projector.

FIGURE DRAWING. The most critical challenge in the entire art curriculum came with the teaching of figure drawing and the

accompanying problems of interior and landscape backgrounds. At first, portrait and figure drawing were presented from an anatomical approach. Drawings by Leonardo da Vinci, Durer, Rembrandt and others were displayed to show the interest of the Renaissance artists in anatomy. Through this approach, presented in simple diagrams, many pupils made significant improvement in drawing "correct" figures. Unfortunately the few sessions that could be devoted to this topic in view of the limited time available did not allow for sufficient development to insure retention of skill. Moreover, some boys who lacked the technical facility for this type of drawing were left with a feeling of continued frustration despite their undoubted improvement.

MODERN PAINTING. A significant factor which led to a change in approach was the desire to bring the problem or figure drawing into harmony with the teaching of "Modern" painting. In their science classes the boys pride themselves on being up to date on the latest discoveries and theories. In art, however, they are content to accept the dicta of the Renaissance and do not hesitate to scoff at art that seems new and strange. One result, unfortunately, is a feeling of inadequacy when the pupils compare their own drawings with those of the Renaissance masters and their contemporary disciples. The problem then becomes one of relating their own level of drawing to the newer movements in art and in turn of interpreting these in the light of modern science and technology.

CUBISM. Now, before beginning the teaching of figure drawing, we plan a series of lessons on the modern approach to drawing. The various phases of Cubism, for instance, can be shown to be closely related to many aspects of contemporary science and allied fields. Picasso's early Cubist paintings, which transformed objects into their basic geometric forms, can be related to the students' knowledge in mathematics. Leger's Cubist paintings are displayed beside photographs of machinery. The Cubist theory of "Simultaneity" (showing an object at successive moments in time) is explained in terms of modern theories of matter in motion and further exemplified by the motion picture and the high speed camera, which takes action shots at 1/75000 of a second. The rearrangement of forms in Cubism is compared to a multiview mechanical drawing and to a double exposure in photography. The humorous distortion of Picasso's

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bathers is made intelligible by comparison with a photograph of a man whose hand is directly in front of the lens. Students are especially taken with the fact that firms whose advertising has made the greatest use of Cubist devices have been companies which manufacture chemicals, electrical supplies—all closely allied to scientific research.

EXPRESSIONISM. Similarly the Expressionism of Roualt and Kokoschka, with their intensification of form and color, can be presented in terms of scientific research in the field of the influence of emotions on physical reactions. Scientific material mentioned in this correlation are Cannon's *Bodily Changes in Hunger, Fear, Rage and Pain* and recent popularizations of developments in psycho-somatic medicine.

SURREALISM. In the presentation of Surrealism, the emphasis has been placed on its indebtedness to the researches of Sigmund Freud and the theory of Psychoanalysis. Surrealism becomes less far-fetched when it is referred to the contents of the students' own dreams, their slips of the tongue and their associational thinking. As an illustration of how people react differently to the same word stimulus, students are asked to list a chain of associations with a given word. To show how the same object may be transformed according to the theories of various modern painters, an illustration is given of an apple as it would be painted by a Cubist, and Expressionist and a Surrealist painter.* On one occasion a question on a final examination asked the students to handle in this manner an object of their own choosing. One student chose a tennis racket as his subject. His Surrealist example has been a favorite with subsequent classes. The list of associations was: tennis, net, fish, fry, electric chair. His Surrealist picture showed a fish entering a tennis racket whose strings droop like those of a net. Below the net is a frying pan held by a man sitting in an electric chair.

SCIENCE AND ART. Modern scientific developments have also been used in this effort to counteract the students' dissatisfaction with their own drawings of people. Especially since the invention of the camera, many artists have come to believe that anatomical

* This idea will appear in a forthcoming edition of *Britannica Junior* in an article and illustration under Painting.

accuracy and accurate recording of perspective can be left to a mechanical instrument which can outdo any draughtsman. The modern artist no longer feels confined to the Renaissance conceptions of space and time. His art experiments make use of contemporary theories in physical science and modern concepts in psychology and psychiatry. The extent to which these ideas have really been accepted by the public can best be seen by examining our most popular art form—the comics. Dick Tracy's face, Soglow's Little King, and Popeye swinging his fists are examples of Cubism. The drawings of Thurber, Partch and Van Loon are Expressionist, while Smokey, Stover, Krazy Kat and Walt Disney's characters are undeniably Surrealist.

From here it is easier to drive home the point that growth in art ability should not be measured entirely in terms of increased skill in correct drawing. The modern emphasis on organizing space into a satisfying design, on experimenting with colors and forms, or on incorporating the totality of one's experience in response to an art problem—all these are even more significant criteria of growth. Of course, the few who regard themselves as "talented" and want to "improve" their drawings are helped in the traditional fashion.

Upon the introduction a few years ago of the new art syllabus, a new avenue of scientific interest became available. After the preliminary exercises in color exploration, the students are now introduced to the Impressionist theory of painting objects with streaks or dots, using the entire spectrum. The discoveries of the Impressionists are shown to be directly inspired by the color researches of the physicists Helmholz and Lukeisch. Cezanne, who took an important step beyond the Impressionists by painting in larger areas or planes, is shown to have anticipated modern psychological research in eye movements.

Abstract paintings may become more intelligible when the experience of modern science is called upon. The microscope has uncovered a new world of abstract forms unknown to the artists of the Renaissance. Some of the paintings of Kandinsky and his followers bear a close resemblance to bacteria, cells or a cross section of body tissue. The Non-Objective painters have written of their attempts to capture in abstract form the harmonious movements of the planets or the forces within the atom. Mondrian is presented as an artist who set out to manipulate the simplest elements of line and color

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with the precision of an engineer working within the tolerance of 1000th of an inch.

ART AND BIOLOGY. A very successful lesson combining abstract and surrealist art with biology is called *Imaginary Bacteria*. After drawing bacteria for a science project, students are asked to imagine that "diseases" of student misbehavior such as lateness, excessive talking, loafing, etc., are caused by undiscovered bacteria. The problem is to imagine what the appearance of these bacteria might be. Abstract and Surrealist paintings are used as reference material alongside pictures of actual bacteria. To give the problem an authentic but humorous flavor, the students pattern the text after the style and vocabulary used in a bacteriological atlas. One term the seniors used this idea as a theme for their Yearbook.

OTHER CORRELATIONS. In other areas of the art appreciation course, the students' interest and experience in science have been utilized to illuminate and enliven the projects selected. The painting of the Renaissance is presented as an outgrowth of the same forces that led to the beginnings of modern science. Leonardo da Vinci is introduced as a many-sided genius who felt that his greatest fame would come from his achievements as a scientist. Many pupils are amazed to learn that Samuel Morse and Robert Fulton, known to them as inventors, were also painters.

In architecture, the epoch-making buildings are introduced in terms of the creative use of scientific principles of construction—the post and lintel, the arch and dome, the buttress and vault and the steel cage. A popular project on the history of architecture challenges the students to present the facts about famous buildings of the past through games that utilize buzzers, lights and other mechanical devices.

A unit on clothes begins with a discussion on good taste in dress for school and concludes with drawings of costumes scientifically designed for ease and comfort in a "post-war" world. Stage sets have been made for plays and stories of scientific interests which were part of the English curriculum.

Industrial design is presented as a new art form that has grown out of the creative utilization of the machine as a tool in the hands of an artist-engineer. There is hardly any need for motivation when such problems are suggested as a design for an ideal hobby room or a perfect desk.

The above projects have been enumerated to suggest how the art program has been planned to take advantage of the students' interest in science. When the Integrated Program was introduced early in the history of the school, many new opportunities were provided for integrating art with social studies, English and mathematics as well as with science. An introductory unit on *Orientation to School* was the occasion for teaching lettering applied to all school forms and to an attractive notebook. The art lesson for the unit on *Personal Problems* was a self-portrait with a background indicating the students' interests and problems. The unit on *Food* has emphasized a variety of art lessons. On one occasion painting was taught by using food as subject matter. During the war the "invention" idea was applied to drawings portraying solutions of war-time food problems. A food poster was another war project.

The unit on *Housing* provided an opportunity to relate the history of architecture to community planning and designs for modern homes. A sub-unit on *Elections* became an occasion to teach the appreciation of and skills involved in political cartooning.

In retrospect, the challenge presented by these science-minded boys has been a stimulating experience. For one art teacher it has not only brought an awareness of the basic role of science in our civilization but has also enriched and deepened his understanding of art history and the function of art in contemporary society.

HISTORICAL NOTE. In February, 1946, Science High School became a co-ed school. To an art curriculum which has never remained static has been added a new element of volatility which will undoubtedly lead into areas of science hitherto unexplored.

TOBY KARL KURZBAND Bronx High School of Science

THE G.O. AND DEMOCRATIC CITIZENSHIP*

This talk on *"What Powers should the G. O. have if it is to do effective training for democratic citizenship,"* is a summary of thirty years' experience with G. O. work of all kinds in a school which has set the pattern for many of the G. O.'s in the city.

*Talk given at the city-wide G.O. meeting at Midwood High School on January 11, 1946.

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It seems to me that at the outset the term democratic citizenship should be defined. The philiosophy of democracy is to learn to work and become free under the law. This concept is not an inherent characteristic of school life; it is acquired through constant experiences of all kinds through various phases of life. How can the G. O. supply these experiences. I for one do not believe that this can best be done by turning the G. O. and its activities over to the students entirely. This is certainly foreign to our concept of government, which provides for a series of checks and balances on the national, state, and municipal level. A move such as that would be revolutionary and not evolutionary, which is the method under which democracy progresses.

G. O. DEMOCRACY. How much power and control then should the students have? As much as they are able to absorb and digest and put into actual practice. Almost two generations of high school pupils have taught me that by and large the boys and girls who participate in extracurricular activities have mature judgment and an ability to conduct their own affairs far beyond the opportunities offered them. Why can't they be allowed complete liberty within their own sphere? Why not teach them that every freedom has a responsibility on their part—that every right and every privilege carries with it the absolute necessity of guarding against abuses, which can creep in stealthily under the guide of "student rights" vociferously cried for by a minority group. Why not let students work and become free citizens to the highest degree of which they are capable? One might ask here—"What is stopping them?" The answer to that question lies in the situation that exists in our schools. G. O. democracy has as many variations as there are schools. The principals are the final arbiters—to put it mildly. If the school is fortunate to have one who believes and practices democracy, you may rest assured that there is a good live G. O. in that school. The other picture I shall not attempt to paint. I have never heard of an appeal from the decision of a principal to the Board of Superintendents or the Board of Education. Why, I wonder? The Superintendents do send auditors at G. O. expense who apply meticulous standards to the audit of G. O. books. No one objects to the audit, which is undoubtedly necessary but why try to run the G. O.'s just as an accounting system rather than as a human institution?

SUGGESTIONS. Enough of generalities. Some practical suggestions on what powers the G. O.'s should have.

1. Principals and teachers must be made to understand that the G. O. and its activities are an integral part of the curriculum—side by side with classroom work. I have never seen in print the actual relationship of the G. O. to the school. Colleges and employers alike are placing ever-increasing emphasis on such qualities as leadership, social attributes and participation in literary, athletic, and other extracurricular activities all of which are within the purview of the G. O.

2. All monies—and I do mean all—must be voted by a G. O. council, which shall be elected democratically by secret ballot after a campaign in the school during hours. The nature of our system and democratic procedure necessitates that the principal should have the veto power not only in financial matters but others as well, However, I feel that the veto power should not only be used sparingly, but that there should be some way of overriding it. For example, if ¾ of the council votes to override—that action would be tantamount to an appeal to the superintendents, whose decision would be final.

3. Schools should be required to have pupil-controlled service leagues, student courts, discussion groups, lunchroom squads, etc. The pupils should know their responsibilities and realize that the continued existence of these activities depends on pupil performance. I have seen activities such as these work efficiently.

4. The G. O. faculty adviser should be *per se* a member of the guidance committee with all the privileges and immunities pertaining thereto. He and all others in extracurricular activities, such as the newspaper and magazine advisers, the squad leaders, the club leaders and the coaches do real guidance. Why not combine G. O. activities and guidance and see whether such a marriage will not make for a better school? These teachers are advisers and leaders only—the voice of experience—not bosses and dictators. This is not an appeal for time allowances for their own sake but an atempt to activate as many pupils as possible.

5. Let this G. O. City Council make a uniform G. O. constitution containing the above mentioned ideas, as well as others not mentioned, as inalienable rights of the pupils, faculty and school. Local conditions could be solved by a system of by-laws attached to the

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uniform constitution. There is only one U. S. constitution for the 48 states.

TO SUM UP. In conclusion may I say that a thoroughly democratic G. O. integrated with a thoroughly modern academic and vocational curriculum will help us reach what I consider the best education possible—one that will help a pupil do well almost anything he chooses to do for a livelihood and will, at the same time, teach him the precious lore of the humanities.

IRWIN S. GUERNSEY DeWitt Clinton High School

Books

Guiding the Growth of Reading Interests: Educational Research Bulletin of the Bureau of Reference, Research and Statistics. May Lazar and Lilian J. Le Boit. Board of Education of the City of New York, May, 1945.

The traditional approach of the teacher of English towards the problem of guiding the growth of reading interests is based on the assumption that growth in reading skills and growth in reading interests are synonymous. *"Growth in reading power is to be achieved through avoidance, on the one hand, of materials so easy and so familiar as to present no challenge and, on the other hand, of selections so difficult and so foreign to the experience of the individuals as to elicit no intelligent response."* *

Growth in reading power in the field of the story, according to this approach, is to be achieved through material that is above the reading level of the students, to bring them up to the next rung, leading from the tale of physicial action and disparate incidents to the integrated novel dealing with realistic social panoramas and approaches to life. The reasoning behind this procedure is that, having been exposed to the technique and ideas expressed in the more mature form of the story, the student can be led, through supplementary reading, to habituate his tastes on this new level. In many schools, for example, the inclusion of *Silas Marner* in the second year is justified by the statement that, technically, this book carries the pupils from the level of the tale of action to that of the novel stressing psychological study and integration of incident. Having read this book intensively, the students are prepared and ready to read Hilton, Ferber, Buck.

The reading of *A Tale of Two Cities* reveals to the students the pleasures to be found in reading historical romances and gives them the skills necessary to read on in the field.

* *Basic Aims for English Instruction*: Dora V. Smith.

The advantages of this approach are that the problem of guiding the reading interests of many students can be given group attention; the students, as a result of reading the same book, have a common background for group discussions; our heritage of basic ideals and stories can be imparted economically; supplementary reading for the group can be treated as a group problem.

The disadvantages are more imposing: since all the students in the grade aren't on the same level of reading-skill development, the very act of attempting to create background common to all lessens the reading interests of many. The avid readers could spend their time, more profitably, reading novels of greater complexity; the slower ones have not reached the level of technical skill necessary to gain information or pleasure from the text. For these two groups the goal of reading level planned for is meaningless. Even for the average student, this approach often appears more wasteful of effort than economical of time. The individual interests of the student are not taken into account. The particular field of interest of the pupil at the particular time is not considered. The motivation to be supplied by the teacher is supposed to side-track, not utilize, that interest and bring the student around to a desire to read the type of novel being considered. The ineffectiveness of this approach is ofen evidenced by the disparity between the levels of the novels read in class and the story offered by the student as supplementary reading.

The results of this approach, the stress on one isolated story and then outside reading to develop reading tastes, have been revealed, all too frequently, as being inadequate and disappointing.

"The importance of guiding the growth of reading interest of children is emphasized by the poverty of interests characteristic of so many adults. 'Investigations of the reading habits and abilities of adults indicated, first, that a large proportion of adults do not read very much; second, that the quality of the books and periodicals that they read is low,' and third, that they do not have enough reading ability to utilize either the best of the world's great literature or the the most authoritative sources of information."

As a possible solution to this problem and as a result of their studies in the field of reading interests, apart from reading skills, Dr. Lazar and Mrs. Le Boit in the pamphlet, *Guiding the Growth of Reading Interests,* suggest that, for pupils in the elementary schools, the teacher begin not at the next highest level, but at the level of reading interest at which the teacher finds each individual student to be.

"If it is with their noses buried exclusively in 'Superman' *no prohibition or decree will bring about more elevated tastes. For years teachers and parents have been alarmed at the obsession of most school children with the comics. It is interesting to note, however, that many educators are tending to look upon the mass appeal of the comics with a thoughtful rather than a hostile eye. There is increasing awareness among those who work with children that the comics are a challenge that must be met with something more creative than disapproval."*

The approach, then, is to allow the pupils to read freely on the level at

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which the teacher finds them, and then lead them to higher levels of reading tastes through class libraries, cooperation with the school and public libraries, guided home readings, story hours, book clubs. The point at which the reading program begins is the present reading level of the pupils, not the next stage above it. Reading interests are to lead to reading skills, the reverse of present practices. There is no one textbook for the entire class. The class library should contain sufficient quantity and variety to satisfy the interests of each pupil.

In order that the teachers may be equipped with book suggestions for their pupils, this pamphlet contains a second section consisting of an extensive list of sources of reading lists.

Implications for High School Teachers of English. At first glance the suggestion of individualization of pupil reading, although highly desirable, appears to be impracticable for the high schools. The reading tastes of five classes and not one, of close to two hundred rather than forty students, are to be guided. The mechanics of handling a classroom library would be a full-time job. Keeping, in addition to the present clerical burden, a progress chart in reading for each student seems to be an impossible bookkeeping task. However, there are other implications in this study that are closer to the achievable within the framework of the high schools.

1. As a result of investigations of the levels of reading interests of the students in each grade, wide latitude would be allowed the teacher in the choice of texts for each class. Wherever necessary, instead of requiring that the entire class attempt to read the same book, the class can be divided into groups, each group reading on its own level of interest and ability. The members of each group could have their own discussions and then report to the class as a whole.

2. The readers of the comics and the pulps are not to be ignored. The stories in these magazine are to be read openly, without a sense of furtiveness, and discussed in class. (Incidentally, those teachers who have attempted to keep up with their students and have become acquainted with the comics and the pulps have discovered that many of the world's great stories of the world are being repeated in them, in various disguises, that they have something to offer those who are interested in infusing the American ideals in their students; that the transition from comics or pulps to detective and mystery and then to the more honest presentation-of-life stories can be achieved by students who are guided sympathetically.)

3. More time should be spent in the library by the students under the guidance of the teacher and the librarian. With the aid of the librarian and suitable books, the tastes of the pupil can be nourished and refined.

4. The books chosen for supplementary reading should be closer to the level of interest of the student than to the arbitrary requirements set up by the department for each grade.

5. The gap between the levels of reading of the pupils and that of the textbooks should be narrowed. The stress must be on on extensive rather than on intensive reading. The suitability of the textbooks used in each grade

to the present tastes and interests of the students should be the deciding factor that determines whether a book is to be taught in that term.

6. A realistic grading and scale of the works of literature that are to be taught must be set up to guide the teachers in their guiding the students.

"To create the eager intelligent reader, the school must guide the growth of reading interests in children with as much energy and purposefulness as it has hitherto concentrated on the development of formal reading skills."

JEROME SHOSTAK

Some Sociological Aspects of Vocational Guidance of Negro Children. Marechal-Neil E. Young, Philadelphia, University of Pennsylvania, 1944.

This study was presented to the University of Pennsylvania as a doctoral dissertation in sociology by an investigator who has had extensive experience as a vocational counselor working chiefly with Negro pupils in Pittsburgh and Philadelphia. The study grows out of the problem that a great number of Negro pupils are exposed to disillusionment and frustration because the only occupations they consider worthwhile are the very ones which they are least likely to secure. An important aspect of this problem is the inflexible and unfortunate attitudes toward particular occupations which develop as a result of minority status. These rigid attitudes toward "the good jobs" and "the bad jobs" further restrict the vocational choices of Negro children.

Mrs. Young studied intensively a group of one hundred Negro girls in the ninth grade of a junior high school in the "Hill District" of Pittsburgh. This is a marginal area characterized by industrial encroachments and a marked and continuing deterioration of residential buildings. The investigator set out to determine what influences in the parental, social, and economic background of these youngsters contribute to the development of attitudes toward work which make the task of vocational guidance extremely difficult. The methods of securing the data were painstaking. Although questionnaires were used, these were implemented by cumulative school records, and interviews with pupils and parents. There is a recognition of the frequently ignored fact that accurate information concerning an individual's adjustment are not obtained merely by asking the individual what his attitudes are. How a person defines a particular occupation may reveal more conerning his attitudes than an answer to a direct question.

Agreeing rather closely with similar studies of school children in the past, the investigation discloses that a large percentage of the children expressed a preference for the professions, managerial and clerical occupation. Most of these pupils naturally, *regardless of race,* find their places in other jobs; only a small proportion secure positions in these fields. Unfortunately, this is especially true for Negro workers. Of 4,479,068 Negro workers 14 years of age and over, only 119,200, or 2.6 per cent, were classified in professional and related service by the 1940 census.

The data resulting from the investigation are interpreted in the light of the contribution they can make to the development of vocational counseling

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techniques with Negro children. Suggested techniques include the helping of pupils to recognize their increased vocational opportunities and the need to relate their individual possibilities for success to the experience of persons most like themselves who have accomplished their objectives. Concrete suggestions for improving parent-school relationships are also made.

This study is more important than its limited scope and tentative conclusions would suggest, because of the pressing nature of the basic problem it touches. Our democratic way of life cannot be secure so long as a number of our citizens continue to be born and live outside "the American dream"—so long as we deny to them the opportunity to make a maximum contribution to our society by means of work which realizes their highest personal potentialities.

DAVID G. SALTEN

Occupational Instruction, How to Analyze and Organize for Teaching. Elroy Wm. Bollinger and Gilbert G. Weaver. Pitman Publishing Corporation, New York, 1945; 136 pages; $2.25.

"Occupational Instruction, How to Analyze and Organize for Teaching" is one textbook that should be welcomed by every prospective or recently appointed shop teacher as a real aid to achieve good teaching in as short a time as possible. It should also be welcomed by the same instructor's wife for bringing peace to the family circle.

Recalling that the average prospective shop teacher is a married man with a family, who for years came home from work to enjoy the peace and quiet of his own fireside, makes it difficult to picture that same person suddenly transformed into a student, going to evening school or summer school, returning with an armful of books in order to study how to teach something which he has been doing for at least the past nine years. The atmosphere of the house changes; one hear, "Quiet, Daddy is studying," or "You can't use the living room, Anthony, your father's Trade Analysis is on the floor and it must not be disturbed." If you had the opportunity to look in on the living room floor, you would see a large sheet of nicely ruled paper, each column with a title, extending at least half way across the room.

Dad would be seen busily typing, cutting out small pieces of the typed paper or carefully gluing them into position on the main sheet. When this job, which took months, was completed, the entire project was photostated. This ruined the budget for the week. After all this effort Dad had a trade analysis which was of little practical value in assisting him as a new teacher to do the job he was supposed to do. As the authors of *Occupational Instruction* very modestly state, *"Notebooks, charts and other forms of organization have been used, but experimentation and practice has shown the card method as described in this book to be the most effective."* Mr. Bollinger and Mr. Weaver deserve a vote of thanks from all shop teachers, for they have attacked a real problem and have arrived at a practical solution.

Occupational Instruction is a carefully thought-out and well-written book.

It is printed in an attractive manner, and is written in a clear and friendly style. The book makes no pretense at being profound, but seems to speak the trade teacher's language. The book is short, only 136 pages, not because it fails to treat the subject fully, but because it sticks to the major problem of the book, that of organizing subject matter of a trade for teaching.

Related topics, such as, *The Business of the School, Some Basic Principles of Learning, The Nature of the Young Learner* and *The Nature of a Course of Study* are covered in a sufficiently interesting manner to aid the prospective or new teacher better to reach his objective, which is a good course of study.

The book is profusely illustrated with diagrams, photographs, pen-an-ink sketches and charts.

Realizing a course of instruction based upon real jobs provides the psychological approach essential for the learner and at the same time reproduces a setting more typical of the trade it represents, Mr. Bollinger and Mr. Weaver have used the job as the vehicle of instruction which will serve to create a need for and interest in the instruction to be given.

Step by step, the authors have the reader analyze his trade for teaching material, such as jobs, operations and related information. This information is eventually placed on 5 x 8 cards of 72 lb. or 93 lb. index for heavy usage. Jobs, Operations and Information lessons are typed on cards of different colors. Visual aids, pictures and diagrams are placed on other cards and may be used in a projector.

Combining jobs and operations into a course of study is carefully described. A check sheet is suggested so that one may see at a glance the order of jobs, the operations involved in each job. The authors point out that this work cannot be done hurriedly, that it is a form of research work in which thoroughness must not be sacrificed for speed.

The information lessons follow the operation cards in a logical order. These lessons cover a wide variety of topics such as trade equipment, materials, mathematics, drawing, art and design, chemistry, physics, biology, safety and health, hazards of the trade, and trade terms. Suggestions are made as to when these subjects should be taught. This section of the book should be of value and interest to teachers of related subjects in vocational schools.

The authors provide many thought-provoking, practical questions for the new teacher, to say nothing of aiding the older teachers to get out of a rut. The book emphasizes the fact that a master course of study serves as a warehouse, as a tool kit for the instructor, and that sections of the course must be so arranged to fit the specific class, course or school. This is easily done with the card system.

The last chapter maintains the interest of the reader to the end of the last paragraph. Several important topics are discussed. *Using the Lesson Cards for Lesson Plans* is a great advantage over any of the other methods of course organization. *The Use of Cards as a Basis for Developing Teaching Aids Around the Course of Instruction* brings to your attention automatically, at the most appropriate time, the visual aids on hand, or sketches which are most suitable for blackboard work. The use of cards is a basis for developing

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job, operation, information and assignment sheets, to say nothing of a testing program.

Is this the "perfect" book on the subject? Perhaps not. Some people think that it entails too much work; others protest that the cards are too small or that the sample lesson units as shown on various pages are not of approved form, or the title of the book is weak, that it does not attract the attention to the book that it should. All this may or may not be true, but the fact remains that in spite of having made one trade analysis approximately seven feet long while going to the University of the State of New York, several teachers in our school, on hearing of the improved method, started to make up another course of study following the plan outlined in *Occupational Instruction*. Up to date this system has been found to be well worth while, a real aid to better teaching. *Occupational Instruction* should be in the reference library of every shop department, for if it does nothing else, it will stimulate thought, provoke ideas and discussion on a most important topic.

JOSEPH W. SCHELLINGS

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Educators Must Be Born Again

C. LESLIE CUSHMAN
Associate Superintendent, Philadelphia Public Schools*

Whenever people are met to discuss the great task of improving human relations, they ask, "Where are we to get the teachers and administrators who will be adequate for the job?"

In raising this question we despair of ourselves. And it is comparatively easy to gather supporting evidence for this despair. If we are realistic, however, we must recognize that there are not now, and there will not be at any early date, a new group of "prepared" teachers and administrators ready to march in and take over. In the main, if a better job of intercultural education is to be done in this generation, the present generation of teachers, principals, and administrators must do it. If we can strengthen our numbers by the addition of persons who are better prepared, by all means let us do so. But our major concern should be for increasing our own strength. "Democracy is based upon the conviction that there are extraordinary possibilities in ordinary people." What is needed is the fullest possible realization of those extraordinary possibilities in this generation of teachers and administrators.

Needed: A Realistic View of the Administrator's Job

If any individual is to realize to the full his own potentialities, it is essential that both he and his fellows have a reasonable view of his proper role. A reasonable or accurate view of the role of the administrator in our society is made difficult by the existence of an outmoded way of thinking about the administration of modern social enterprises.

The conventional concept of life within any social group is that the course of group affairs is ultimately determined at some top position. When people do not get along, or when things do not go well, we tend to look to someone at the top to step in and "solve the problem." Or at least we hold that that someone at the top, if he were big enough for the job, would be able to solve it.

Three unfortunate results derive from this outmoded concept:

1. It makes the job expected of the administrator one that could be performed only by a superman, while men continue to come in average size.

*Reprinted from *Intercultural Education News*, April 1946.

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2. It pushes the administrator to a "level of pretense" where he is denied the privilege of doubt.
3. Even more important, the view that the administrator should ultimately solve each problem, or every really tough problem, causes other persons to run away from tackling vigorously the things that lie within their power.

If we could free ourselves from this outmoded concept of the administrator as superman—if we would learn to view the relationships of administrator and fellow-worker as horizontal rather than vertical, co-operative rather than authoritative—the administrator could more readily find his appropriate role in a complex society.

If this concept of administration were applied in schools concerned with intercultural education, there would still remain a man-sized job for the superintendent or principal. But it would be a possible, or at least a more nearly possible job. It would denote a recognition of the important fact that living together cannot be ordered from the top. It would make the administrator and teacher full partners in the attempt to maintain conditions throughout schools and communities conducive to learning to live together.

Needed: Extraordinary Service From Ordinary People

Let us return to the problem first stated: how can we realize within our "ordinary selves" the "extraordinary possibilities" that are required for an adequate program of intercultural education? At the risk of being charged with sentimentalism, let me say that we need to be "born again." In the speeded-up world of the mid-twentieth century there are many imperatives for which we shall find ourselves inadequate unless we experience a rebirth of insight and courage. And among the first of these is that of learning, and helping others to learn, to live together.

The reason for believing it possible that we can be born again into the realities of the world now about us is that this very process is happening every day. "I cannot understand how I was ever so blind to the possibilities of all children, irrespective of color or class," writes one teacher after an intensive year of activity in an intercultural project. Another teacher has said, "It's like coming suddenly alive. It's seeing for the first time things as they really are. It's amazing. It's shocking, but at the same time wonderful, and a little frightening." A principal recently told her associates, "I invite you all to throw off the mask of tradition and enter into partnership with other teachers to help all children to tackle the things that matter and to live at their best."

In every situation where teachers and administrators are brought face to face with the job of helping children and youth as persons to come to terms with themselves, and to grips with their environment, something happens to some of those teachers and administrators that can properly be described as being born again.

If we are to secure teachers and school administrators adequate to the needs of our day, we will not put the task off because of a vain hope that persons who are "naturals" are somewhere, somehow, to be found. Nor will we trust to the long-time way of gradual day-by-day change of attitude and growth in understanding. Rather we shall seek for ourselves and all who share with us the full and rapid development of those extraordinary powers that are required of us. Nothing less than this can by any stretch of the imagination make possible the job that must be done. Further, nothing less than to be born again will provide for most of us who work in the schools that honest appraisal of our task, and the sense of power for that task, which are essential even to being at peace with ourselves.

The Monopoly of Objective Tests*

FRANK N. FREEMAN

The thesis of this paper is that the use of objective examinations is greatly overdone in the present-day school and college in this country, and that this excessive use is bound to have a harmful effect on study and learning in America. I believe that our students are acquiring a wrong concept of what study means and that the real aims of instruction are being distorted. This distortion of aims, produced by the instruments of examination that we use, comes at a time when we are adopting in theory quite different aims and are trying to reorganize our curriculums so as to achieve them. We are coming to realize that the mere acquisition of isolated facts is not an education, and that unless the student goes forth from our schools and colleges with well established concepts or ideas his edu-

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cation has been a failure. At the moment when the importance of seeing things in relation to each other and to the major concerns of human life is recognized, our schools and colleges are dominated by a technique of examination that leaves this type of thinking out of account. It is time we realize that our aims in teaching and our methods of evaluating teaching are at cross purposes and that we seek to bring them into harmony.

PITFALLS. The use of so-called objective examintions has become very widespread. They were first employed by teachers in departments of education and by teachers in high schools. They have now been adopted by many teachers in other departments in colleges and universities. Along with this extensive use has grown up the dogma that objective tests provide the only satisfactory examining instrument, and that the essay examination is entirely outmoded. *I shall contend, on the contrary, that the objective test has definite limitations, is useful only for certain purposes, and is much inferior to the essay examination for other purposes.* This view is not new, but it needs renewed emphasis.

It may be helpful to sketch briefly the history of the objective test. There are three forms most commonly used: the true-false, multiple-choice and completion forms. Others, such as the matching tests, are less often used. These forms of tests are so familiar, even to readers of popular magazines, that they do not need to be illustrated.

All three of these forms of test originated as means of testing ability rather than as means of examining knowledge. The completion test was first hit upon by H. Ebbinghaus, in 1897. He was seeking a method of measuring mental fatigue, but found that he had discovered a means of measuring mental capacity. The Ebbinghaus test was introduced widely in this country by Trabue's Language Test Completion Scales. This title was somewhat of a misnomer since the scales measure mental ability more than language ability or the effect of instruction in language. When used as part of an examination rather than as a test of ability, the device is differently set up. In the first case the part of the sentence which is given should make it evident what conditions must be fulfilled by the word or words which are omitted, whereas in the second case, the words which are given do not make these conditions obvious. In the latter case it requires ingenuity to put together the cues supplied by the words which are given and to figure out what they mean.

Hence, when the completion form is used in an examination it measures a different kind of ability than when it is used in a mental test. It determines whether the student can supply a given fact or item of knowledge when the nature of the information required is evident rather than whether he can combine cues as to infer what the nature of the missing part is. When the completion device was taken over from the mental test to be used in examinations and achievement tests, then, its essential character was altered and it demanded a different kind of thinking.

The true-false and alternative or multiple-choice devices have a similar history, though their historical development from their use in mental tests to their use in examinations is foreshortened. They were first used extensively in the Army Alpha Scale in the first World War. Within a few years they came to be widely used in examinations.

There is an essential difference between examinations and mental tests which is not always recognized. In mental tests the measurement is largely relative—that is, it consists in a comparison between individuals. Granted that we know something about the kind of ability that is measured, though this is usually little enough, the amount of this ability that a person making a given score possesses is defined only as being greater or less than that possessed by somebody else, or by a group of other persons. In an examination the returns should signify more than this. They should reveal in a more substantive way what knowledge the individual possesses or what ability he commands. They must be scrutinized carefully in order to determine whether they require the kind of knowledge and the kind of ability which it is the aim of instruction to produce, and whether the amount of knowledge and ability that is produced satisfies the aim.

VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY. These questions regarding the substantive character of tests and examinations have not been sufficiently considered in recent discussions of the theory and technique of testing achievement, and in the construction of tests and examinations. In technical terms, validity is not given enough attention in contrast to reliability. In fact, the true meaning of validity disappears altogether in the quite respectable technique of test construction in which the validity of an item is defined as its consistency with all other items of the test. The criterion of validity then be-

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comes purely an internal one, and the question whether the test as a whole measures what it is supposed to measure is a matter of purely gratuitous assumption. It seems likely that this neglect of the question whether the test or examination measures what it is supposed to measure grows in part out of the predominant use of forms of tests which do not bear too close scrutiny in respect to what they measure. I shall return to this point.

RELIABILITY AND ESSAY TESTS. The great argument for the use of objective forms of examination was in fact their superior reliability. The early studies by Starch and Elliott in 1912-13 have become classics in the sense that everybody quotes them but nobody reads them. In each of their three studies these investigators sent an examination paper in a high school subject to a large number of high school teachers and asked them to grade it on a scale of one hundred per cent. The grades covered a wide range. Of 116 teachers of mathematics, for example, two marked the paper over 90 and one below 30. It is obvious that a large part of this variation may be due, not to the unreliability of scoring, but to a difference in the standard required for passing. This variation in standards also affects the scores on objective tests when these scores are transformed into marks. On the other hand, marks may be made more uniform by agreement concerning the standards to be employed. In fact, they may be made approximately as uniform, by appropriate preparation of the readers, as are scores on objective tests.

The notion that marks based on the older types of examination, including the essay examination, are almost entirely arbitrary, has persisted for over thirty years, in spite of the fact that it has been abundantly proved that these examinations can be made substantially as uniform as are objective examinations. As long ago as 1929 a comparison between the reliability of objective tests and essay tests was made by Ben C. Wood and the writer in their study of motion pictures.* Eight reliability coefficients from the objective tests, corrected by the Spearman-Brown formula, were .708, .718, .723, .752, .770, .789, .804 and .941. From the essay tests the three coefficients calculated were .74, .76 and .81. Obviously these co-

* Freeman, F. N. and Ben D. Wood. *Motion Pictures in the Classroom.* Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1929. pp. 52, 114.

efficients are of the same order. In the thirties close agreement in experiments conducted by Traxler and Anderson,[1] Frutchey,[2] Sims[3] and Stalnaker.[4, 5] *There is no longer any ground for the belief that it is necessary to resort to the objective type examination to secure uniformity, or reliability. It is merely a question of taking sufficient pains.*

POOR OBJECTIVE TESTS. Pains, by the way, are as necessary in constructing objective examinations as essay examinations. *As grievous sins against true education have been committed by objective tests—even of the "standardized" variety—as by essay tests. This is particularly true of tests that deal with principles or general ideas.* They indicate the difficulty, if not the impossibility, of dealing adequately with general questions in tests of this kind. Some of the published tests, which are doubtless widely used, are enough to make courses in education the laughing stock of the academic world. The following examples, chosen from one of the most respectable tests on *An Introduction to Education,* which shall here be nameless, are by no means the worst that could be found. The student is directed to indicate whether the following statements are true or false:

Teaching should make use of the familiar in the child's experiences.

The real test of method depends upon its utilization of the laws of learning.

Every successful teacher will avoid making cross connections between the subject-matter of the lesson and the more direct experiences of life.

The school can well be irresponsible concerning the health of children in its care.

A good question must be closely related to the experiences of the learner.

A memory question develops initiative and creative thinking.

[1] Traxler, A. E. and H. A. Anderson. *Reliability of an Essay Examination in English. School Review.* 53:534-9. September, 1935.

[2] Frutchey, E. P. *Close Agreement Found in Marking Essay Examinations. Journal of Highter Education.* 4:376-7, October, 1933.

[3] Sims, V. M. *Improving the Measuring Qualities of the Essay Examination. Journal of Educational Research.* 27:20-31, September, 1933.

———*Reducing the Variability of Essay Examination Marks through Eliminating Variations in Standards of Grading. Journal of Educational Research.* 26:637-47, May, 1933.

[4] Stalnaker, J. M. *Essay Examinations Reliably Read. School and Society.* 46:671-2, November 20, 1937.

[5] Stalnaker, J. M. and R. C. Stalnaker. *Reliable Reading of Essay Tests. School Review.* 42:599-605, October, 1934.

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Educational tests are valuable means of comparison and diagnosis.

Inexperienced teachers should not attempt to formulate thought-provoking questions.

A wise teacher will attempt to kill off by punishment the instinct of mastery.

A child always learns best by imitating other pupils' responses.

Responses to situations are entirely unrelated to the general mental state of the person confronted by the situation.

Individual differences should be given consideration in the junior high school.

These questions are taken from one of the four parts of the test. Perhaps they are intended to eliminate the Mortimer Snerds from the group. If anybody got as far as a course in Introduction to Education and was unable to answer these questions before he started the course, he should look into some of Mortimer's explanations of why he is so stupid. Either a course on which such an examination is based is full of platitudes or the examination is a very poor representation of the course. One hopes that the latter is the case. It would give some indication, for example, of a prospective teacher's competence to hear him tell how "teaching should make use of the familiar in the child's experiences"; but his assent to this proposition would reveal just nothing at all concerning his competence. In fact, it would be worse than nothing, because it would seem to give knowledge when none exists.

These may be poor examples of true-false questions, but if such questions are prepared by prominent educators and put out by a leading publisher, one shudders to think of the kind of questions that must be formed by the average teacher. Perhaps a method should be judged only by its best examples. At any rate these will reveal its possibilities and limitations. Let us then look at an example selected from one of the best objective tests I know, one in educational psychology:

> In acquiring a manual skill most learners benefit greatly from having an instructor or mechanical device to guide their hands through the movements involved.

This is a good question to find out whether the student knows one of the facts which has been discovered through scientific experiment. However, so far as the question and the answer go the fact is an isolated one, unrelated either to the supporting evidence or to its implications for education. Furthermore, there are no qualifications expressed or implied, and there is no opportunity for the student to

suggest that qualifications might be made. By such questions, furthermore, the student is not encouraged to consider the reasons for the facts that are in him but only to accumulate them. He is encouraged, rather, to try to anticipate what facts the instructor is likely to call for, and to file them away in neatly arranged pigeon holes in his mind.

This is not mere speculation. It is proved to the hilt in everyday teaching experience as well as by scientific experiment. Why do students insist on knowing whether they will have an objective or an essay examination? There can be only one answer. They will prepare differently for the two types. They frankly say so. Their reports are backed up by observation of the methods they actually use. Terry[6] and Meyer[7] both found that students report that their methods in studying for the two examinations differ widely. A quotation from one of Meyer's students is typical of all:

> "For an essay type test, I usually try to fix the general outline, the major drift of the subject, in my mind, and then add as many details to the general absorption as my time and energy permit. I usually outline the material on paper and try to think it through several times. When false and true, completion or multiple-choice tests are expected, I concentrate my attention on learning details, definitions, words, figures. I stuff my memory with as many facts as I think it likely to retain for the required time, until and including the test, and then quickly forget every thing except the few points that appealed to me as most important."

Meyer also confirmed the students' reports of the methods they used by examining records of their study. Meyer,* in another experiment, also found that students could recall material in organized fashion and know the facts when cues were not given better when they prepared for essay examinations than when they prepared for objective examinations.

COMPREHENSION SOUGHT. What is the purpose of teaching and of examination, and what is the relation of this purpose to the

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[6] Terry, Paul W. *How Students Review for Objective and Essay Tests. Elementary School Journal.* 33: 592-603, April, 1933.

[7] Meyer, George. *An Experimental Study of Old and New Types of Examinations.* II. Methods of Study. *Journal of Educational Psychology.* 26: 30-40, January, 1935.

* Meyer, George. *An Experimental Study of Old and New Types of Examinations.* I. *The Effect of Examination Set on Memory. Journal of Educational Psychology.* 25: 641-661, December, 1934.

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student's later life, personal or professional? I think we may say that one of the chief purposes is to produce understanding or comprehension. This is something much broader and deeper than the accumulation of facts, though it has an essential relation to facts. Facts are the means or part of the means to understanding, but they are not understanding itself. The possession of facts does not guarantee the attainment of understanding, and the fading out of facts from the memory does not prove that understanding has been correspondingly dimmed. In truth, the function of facts is largely to serve as a sort of scaffolding to understanding. After the main edifice has been built the scaffolding may be taken down. What is it that will carry over into everyday life, or into teaching, the recollection that somebody found that pupils were helped in learning to write by tracing the letters in grooves, or the development of a conception of learning which is the outgrowth of various forms of evidence and which, in turn, is applicable to a wide variety of situations? Consider an example from another field. What approach to the history of education will illuminate our current issues the best, one which impresses the student with the requirement that he learn that Sturm influenced Jesuit Education, or one that undertakes to build up in the student's mind a picture of the dominant ideas, beliefs and social practices of an epoch and the connections between these and the educational system. Granted that there is not a complete dichotomy, there is at least a vital difference in emphasis. The stress we place in our evaluation will be reflected in the stress the students place in their study.

PLACE OF OBJECTIVE TESTS. There is a certain precision and neatness in objective measurement and a susceptibility to statistical manipulation that is very attractive—and for certain purposes, useful. As an exclusive, and perhaps even a chief, method of evaluation of learning, however, it is fundamentally indaequate. Only by rigidly channeling the student's thoughts can they be represented by a single number. By so doing the infinite variety of the individuals' thinking is ignored, and the possibility of checking and guiding the development of the students' ideas, conceptions and points of view is abandoned. This, to be sure, is a delicate process, but it lies at the heart of teaching.

Consider what is revealed regarding the comprehension of the problem by two following actual answers to an examination question:

Question: Why is it difficult to express the range of differences in abilities by a ratio?

Answer, Student A: Ratio is merely a means of establishing a relationship between two factors. The difficulty in trying to express the range of one's abilities by a ratio, would come about due to the fact that one's abilities are overlapping and so varied that it would be impossible to establish a ratio.

Answer, Student B: A ratio of difference in ability can be expressed only when the test is calibrated from *o*. This rarely can be done unless one goes back to the abilities of the very young child. As a rule, it is inexpedient to go farther back than the probable range of the examinees. Hence the ability to perform *one* arithmetic example as compared with the ability to do *six* of the same difficulty does not imply a ratio of 1:6 in ability,—the ability present in the first case being considerable, and the improvement in ability for *six right* perhaps negligible.

No mere number would do justice to the difference between these two statements, nor would it give a clue as to where to begin in the education of the student who wrote the first statement—perhaps at some relative, if not at absolute zero.

USE THE ESSAY EXAMINATION. I would not cast out the objective tests on which so much ingenuity has been expended. They have their uses. I would, however, protest vigorously against the casting out of what is contemptuously called the essay examination. *I maintain that the most delicate and direct means of exploring the student's mind, as of instructing him, is still the method of exposition and discussion. Nothing comparable to it yet has been devised as a means of revealing the students' thinking, or as a means of cultivating the ability to think. I suggest that we recover our balance, confining objective tests to those uses to which they are fitted, and restoring the free expression of thought through language to the position of dignity which it deserves.*

Ultimo*

Ill met by moonlight,
Or twilight, or sunlight,
Or any light but one light,
Are Education and Finance.

—Simple Folk Rhyme.

*Reprinted from Dublin Opinion, May, 1946.

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If you concede the point, and most men in Ireland concede it,
That, next to the Work of God, the teacher's work is the highest.
Why, you might ask, should They whom we have elected to serve us,
Niggle and finick so much about a demand for payment
Which is moderate in all truth, and even a shade belated?
When what the teacher gives is that which no money could measure,
Why do the cloud-wrapped They huckster with shilling, and sixpence?
The answer is, of course, "The country cannot afford it."
But the country can pay, and has paid, for corvettes, and pomps, and airports
And luxury hotels and luscious lures for tourists
And a hydro-electric Erne on the hydro-cephalic Border.
Surely light for the mind comes easily first in order?

Why not face the fact—the truth—that the teaching service
Is the most important service of any the Government pays for?
Or else, of course, if you like, stop paying ideals lip-service
And just say, crudely: "You're good, but you'll have to take what we give you.
Take it or not, my lads. On your heads be the consequences.
We are the only judges. That is our final offer."
(Which is, of course, in itself, a marvellous chance for the scoffers,
To hear any human being talking of Final offers.)
Men who've come up in the world, who've gained position and honour,
Should, of all men, know best what they have owed to their teachers
In far-off rural days in little old wise schoolhouses
And they ought to get busy now on the Front and the farther benches,
Ought to remember with thanks what they cannot well forget.
Ought to acknowledge it now, and, in God's name, clear the debt.

Ill met by moonlight,
Or twilight, or sunlight,
Or any light but one light,
Are Education and Finance.

The Activities of a First Assistant*

HARRY EISNER
Chairman, Committee on Problems of Supervision

The tremendous expansion of the secondary school system during the past twenty-five years has brought in its wake a host of new duties and responsibilities. In the areas of in-service teacher training, the differentiation of courses of study to meet varying needs and capacities, the development of new teaching aids and techniques and the maintenance of scholastic standards and discipline, to mention only a few, the high schools have encountered serious challenges to the conception of secondary education that prevailed in 1920.

The first assistant is charged primarily with the responsibility of directing and supervising the growth of teachers and the achievement of worthy educational objectives through the medium of his subject field. To keep pace with the increasing complexity of the school, the first assistant's functions should be correspondingly modified in scope and direction. At the same time the administration of a department entails a great many necessary routine activities which make urgent demands on the chairman.

The problem of how to realize essential ends in supervision in the face of practical limitations of time and energy for fulfillment raises these important questions:

1. What are the present activities of first assistants?
2. Which of the present activities impede the realization of the prime objectives of the job of first assistant?
3. What administrative policies should be instituted by headquarters to facilitate and promote the exercise of the essential functions of a first assistant?

It was the desire to answer these questions from the point of view of the first assistant that prompted the Committee on Problems of Supervision to undertake a form of job analysis through the use of a questionnaire. Replies were received from 257 first assistants

* This report was prepared by the Committee on Problems of Supervision of the Association of First Assistants. The members of the Committee are
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Hubert N. Hart, Stuyvesant High School
Julius H. Hlavaty, Bronx High School of Science
Maurice D. Hopkins, Richmond Hill High School
Harry Eisner, Chairman, Manual Training High School

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in 45 high schools, one of which was a vocational high school. The large response and the very wide distribution of the schools from which the returns were received are factors which support the reliability of the findings and recommendations of the Commtitee.

The report based on this study was adopted by the Advisory Council of the Association of First Assistants in April, 1945, and copies were forwarded by the Association to the High School Division. The following condensed version of the original report consists of four sections, as follows:

I. The Questionnaire
II. Findings
III. Recommendations
IV. Basic Tables of Data

I. THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear Colleague:

The Committee on Problems of Supervision is undertaking a study of the professional activities of first assistants in an effort to determine (a) what these activities are in practice, and (b) what, in our opinion, they ought to be.

Your answers to the questionnaire below will provide us with the necessary information with which to state our position to the educational authorities. Your cooperation is therefore earnestly requested.

It is the opinion of the Committee that the prime function of a first assistant is to foster and direct the growth of teachers and to provide the necessary administrative conditions for the realization of the objectives of secondary education.

The activities actually performed by first assistants may be grouped in six categories, as follows:

I. Supervision and Training of Teachers
II. Departmental Organization and Management
III. Planning and Implementing the Curriculum
IV. Clerical Activities
V. Other Professional Activities within the School
VI. Extra-mural Professional Activities

Some of these activities are highly specialized and should be performed personally by the first assistant. Other activities may be delegated to teachers or should be performed by clerks. Still other activities are irrelevant to the proper functions of a first assistant and should therefore not be assigned to him. From this qualitative

point of view, each activity may be rated as shown in the following scale:

Rating

1. Activities which must be planned and performed personally by the first assistant
2. Activities which demand the personal supervision of the first assistant but which may be carried out cooperatively by teachers
3. Activities which require the supervision of the first assistant but should be assigned to a clerk for their mechanical performance
4. Activities which are irrelevant to the proper functions of the first assistant

Directions for answering questionnaire:

1. In column A, please rate the activities listed below in accordance with the scale described on page 1.
2. In column B, please indicate by a check (√) those activities which you have actually performed personally, or caused to be performed, at any time in the last two years.
3. At the end of each category of activities please insert and rate any items not listed, which in your opinion should be included.
4. Answer questions 1 to 6 on the last page.

1. Supervision and Training of Teachers

	A	B	
1	___	___	Classroom visits
2	___	___	Conferences with teachers following visits
3	___	___	Preparation of reports on classroom visits
4	___	___	Preparation of teachers' ratings
5	___	___	Special conferences with pupil teachers
6	___	___	Special conferences with weak teachers
7	___	___	Special conferences with out-of-license teachers
8	___	___	Special conferences with newly assigned teachers
9	___	___	Conferences with substitutes
10	___	___	Planning intervisitation of teachers
11	___	___	Giving demonstration or model lessons
12	___	___	Planning and conducting departmental meetings
13	___	___	Conducting in-service course at the school
14	___	___	Other professional conferences with teachers
15	___	___	Conferences with other first assistants about problems in this group
16	___	___	Conferences with principal about problems in this group
17	___	___	Training laboratory assistants
18	___	___	Listing of meetings, lectures, exhibits for teachers
19	___	___	Assisting teachers in their preparation for professional examinations

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2. Departmental Organization and Management

	A	B	
1	___	___	Checking on daily arrival of teachers
2	___	___	Communications and interviews with applicants
3	___	___	Conferences with program committee
4	___	___	Preparation of teachers' programs
5	___	___	Equalizing classes
6	___	___	Promotions, demotions and other transfers of pupils during term
7	___	___	Grading and placement of pupils admitted from other schools
8	___	___	Interviews with pupils seeking to repeat, double, etc.
9	___	___	Making arrangements to cover classes of absent teachers
10	___	___	Preparing time schedules for departmental syllabi
11	___	___	Planning uniform examination papers (mid-terms, finals)
12	___	___	Planning and supervising examinations (school examinations)
13	___	___	Planning and supervising administration of Regents' exams.
14	___	___	Planning and supervising deficiency or other special exams.
15	___	___	Preparation and administration of diagnostic and prognostic tests
16	___	___	Planning and supervising departmental exhibits
17	___	___	Planning and supervising storage and distribution of textbooks or other materials
18	___	___	Planning and supervising interclass exchange of textbooks or other materials
19	___	___	Organization and supervision of departmental squads
20	___	___	Care and maintenance of physical plant and equipment
21	___	___	Arranging reception and programs for visiting teachers
22	___	___	Caring for accident cases
23	___	___	Arranging for tutors of weak pupils
24	___	___	Planning departmental circulars

3. Planning and Implementing the Curriculum

1	___	___	Preparation of syllabi for standard and modified courses
2	___	___	Planning changes in syllabi to meet new conditions
3	___	___	Preparation of special study materials and tests
4	___	___	Preparation or selection of visual-aid materials
5	___	___	Selection of textbooks and reference books
6	___	___	Interviews with book agents
7	___	___	Selection of departmental equipment and supplies
8	___	___	Building a subject section of the school library
9	___	___	Building a departmental library
10	___	___	Planning and supervising departmental extracurricular work
11	___	___	Conferences with deans, grade advisers, about courses
12	___	___	Conferences with delinquent pupils
13	___	___	Conferences with parents
14	___	___	Guidance conferences with pupils
15	___	___	Preparation of notes for the department on "Recent Advances"

	A	B	
16	___	___	Preparation of suggestions on how to study
17	___	___	Preparation of instructions on remedial reading
18	___	___	Maintaining discipline

4. Clerical Activities

1	___	___	Maintaining inventories and making inventory reports
2	___	___	Preparing weekly (monthly) orders to supply clerk
3	___	___	Preparing requisitions for books and supplies
4	___	___	Report on organization of department
5	___	___	Special reports required by principal or administrative assistant
6	___	___	Correspondence, including letters of recommendation, etc.
7	___	___	Telephone calls
8	___	___	Typing and distribution of departmental notices
9	___	___	Preparing summaries of results in examinations; promotions
10	___	___	Preparing, posting departmental honor roll
11	___	___	Maintaining departmental bulletin board
12	___	___	Keeping a sustaining record of promotions by teachers
13	___	___	Preparing examination stencils
14	___	___	Preparing stencils of syllabi, exercises, teaching aids, etc.
15	___	___	Performing or supervising mimeographing of all material
16	___	___	Maintaining stock rooms (books, etc.); supervising squads
17	___	___	Listing and posting Regents marks
18	___	___	Arranging for printing of special materials
19	___	___	Purchase of departmental medals and other awards
20	___	___	Maintaining files of materials for teachers
21	___	___	Maintaining complete departmental files; personnel, etc.
22	___	___	Distribution, collection, storage of textbooks
23	___	___	Storage and distribution of equipment and supplies
24	___	___	Purchase and distribution of Regents question books
25	___	___	Supervision of departmental fund in G.O.
26	___	___	Collection of funds from teachers
27	___	___	Clerical duties as subject teacher
28	___	___	Collection and refund of deposits for summer books
29	___	___	Determining recipients of medal awards from school records
30	___	___	Writing reports on visits to teachers
31	___	___	All clerical work incidental to any item in this report not specifically mentioned in this section

5. Other Professional Activities Within the School

1	___	___	Individual conferences with the principal
2	___	___	Attending group conferences called by the principal
3	___	___	Membership on school committees
4	___	___	Attending faculty meetings
5	___	___	Planning programs of faculty meetings
6	___	___	Attendance at assembly programs

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	A	B	
7	___	___	Supervision or participation in assembly programs
8	___	___	Attendance at commencement exercises
9	___	___	Building assignments given to first assistants
10	___	___	Proctoring assignments given to first assistants
11	___	___	Supervision of building assignments given to others
12	___	___	Participation in parent-teacher activities
13	___	___	Supervision of the Honor School
14	___	___	Personal teaching program
15	___	___	Teaching classes of absent teachers
16	___	___	Organization, administration and supervision of visual-aid activities for the school
17	___	___	Victory corps activities
18	___	___	Sponsorship of a school club or activity
19	___	___	Direction of musical or dramatic performance
20	___	___	Supervision of part of building during fire; air raid drill
21	___	___	Planning home-room programs; supervising home rooms
22	___	___	Functioning as "principal of a school within a school"
23	___	___	Alumni activities
24	___	___	Parent-teacher association activities

6. Extra-mural Professional Activities

1	___	___	Assisting Board of Examiners (preparation of written examinations, standard answers, rating papers, reading appeals, interview test, speech test, class teaching test, supervision test, performance test)
2	___	___	Attendance at meetings of professional associations
3	___	___	Participation in programs of professional associations
4	___	___	Service as committee member (or chairman) of professional association
5	___	___	Service as officer of professional association
6	___	___	Attendance at course (in-service, university, etc.)
7	___	___	Giving in-service course, in whole or in part
8	___	___	Service as member (or officer) of Standing Committee
9	___	___	Preparation of professional articles for publication
10	___	___	Addresses at other schools (to faculty, assembly, etc.)
11	___	___	Participation in community educational activities
12	___	___	Attendance at occasional meetings called by director, superintendent, etc.
13	___	___	Organization, etc. of projects for U. S. Gov't., director, superintendent, etc.
14	___	___	Service on curriculum or syllabus committees sponsored by Board of Superintendents
15	___	___	Service on Regents committee
16	___	___	Service for College Entrance Examination Board
17	___	___	Service on State committees, sponsored by State Education Department

	A	B	
18	___	___	Service on text-book approval committee
19	___	___	Preparation of text-books
20	___	___	Filling out questionnaires like this one

General Questions

1. During the past two years, what has been the average total number of hours per week that you have spent *in school* on professional work? (This refers to total time per week in school on all checked items in Sections I to VI.)

2. During the past two years, what has been the average total number of hours per week that you have spent *outside the school building* on professional work? (This refers to total time per week outside school building on all checked items in Sections I to VI.)

3. During the past two years what has been the average total number of hours that you have spent on *clerical work?* (This refers to the total time per week, *in school and outside,* on checked items in Section IV.)

4. If full clerical help were provided, would you employ the released time on other professional activities of a first assistant?

5. Which activities would receive more time from you if full clerical help were provided? Indicate these activities by *placing a circle around the number of each such item* on pages 2 to 7 of this questionnaire.

6. Your name, subject field of license and school.

Please return completed questionnaire at your earliest convenience to your school representative on the Advisory Council.

II. FINDINGS

The Committee on Problems of Supervision presents the following significant findings on the basis of a careful study of the replies to the questionnaire.

1. There is over 99% agreement among first assistants that the following activities must be planned and performed personally by them:

(a) Classroom visits
(b) Conferences with teachers following visits
(c) Special conferences with weak teachers
(See Table 1)

2. Thirty-one specified activities may be carried out cooperatively under supervision, in the judgment of a majority of the first assistant.

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In the case of seven of these activities at least 75% of the first assistants agree that they may be cooperatively performed. Four of these seven activities pertain to planning and implementing the curriculum namely:

(a) Preparation or selection of visual-aid materials
(b) Planning changes in syllabi to meet new conditions
(c) Preparation of special study materials and tests
(d) Preparation of syllabi for standard or modified courses

It is significant that the principle of democratic supervision has attained such a considerable degree of acceptance.

(See Table 2)

3. In the opinion of a majority of the first assistants, the following six activities should be performed with the aid of clerks:

(a) Typing and distribution of departmental notices
(b) Preparing stencils of syllabi, exercises, teaching aids, etc.
(c) Preparing examination stencils
(d) Performing or supervising mimeographing of all material
(e) Correspondence
(f) Preparing summaries of results in examinations, promotions

(See Table 3)

4. One hundred or more first assistants rated the following activities as irrelevant to their proper functions:

(a) Building assignments given to first assistants
(b) Proctoring assignments given to first assistants
(c) Supervision of building assignments given to others

(See Table 4.)

5. Of the 136 activities listed in the questionnaire, 105 activities, or 77% of the total number, have been performed during the past two years by a majority of the first assistants. (See Table 5.) If we also include the 15 additional activities written in (see Table 8), it is reasonable to infer that the result is a fairly comprehensive picture of the complex professional life of a first assistant.

6. Nineteen of the listed activities have been performed during the past two years by 95% to 100% of the first assistants. Heading this group are classroom visits, the subsequent conferences with the teachers visited, and the preparation of the reports on the visits. (See Table 5.)

7. If full clerical help were provided, six activities would be accorded more time by 100 or more first assistants than has been

possible during the past two years. These activities, arranged in descending order of frequency of mention, are

(a) Classroom visits (159)
(b) Conferences with teachers following visits (153)
(c) Special conferences with weak teachers (135)
(d) Planning changes in syllabi to meet new conditions (121)
(e) Preparation of syllabi for standard and modified courses (108)
(f) Conferences with substitutes (102)

It will be noted that the aforementioned activities fall into two categories:

(1) Supervision of teaching
(2) Curricular revision

8. The median time devoted to clerical work by first assistants is 11.8 hours per week. (See Table 7.) Consequently, the allowance of clerical assistance at the rate of two hours per day per first assistant would approximately meet the clerical needs of our group as a whole.

III. RECOMMENDATIONS

The job of a first assistant as it has developed in New York City is exceedingly complex. The many clerical and other routine activities which are part of the day's work consume much time which under ideal conditions would be devoted to the endeavor to perform the essential duties of a first assistant. The Committee believes that the prime function of a first assistant is to foster and direct the growth of teachers and to provide the necessary administrative conditions for the realization of the objectives of secondary education. Duties and responsibilities which are irrelevant to the proper function of a first assistant have been imposed in many cases. While many of the activities of a first assistant may be shared by teachers in the true spirit of democratic supervision, it is highly questionable whether this can be done effectively in the absence of adequate time allowances to selected teachers for this purpose.

The Committee on Problems of Supervision accordingly submits the following recommendations:

1. First assistants should be relieved of building assignments and proctoring assignments, as these activities are irrelevant to their proper supervisory functions.
2. Clerical assistance should be provided to first assistants to the

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extent of at least two hours daily. This service should be rendered by clerks assigned to the departmental offices and/or by a central school office. The aid thus afforded to first assistants will enable them to devote more time to the vital areas of supervision of teaching and curriculum revision.

3. In order that it may be possible for selected teachers to undertake serious departmental projects in cooperation with the first assistant, such as curriculum revision, time allowance should be provided in the form of partial or total relief of these teachers from building assignments for the period of this service.

4. A copy of this report, if adopted, should be sent to the High School Division by the Association of First Assistants.

IV. BASIC TABLES OF DATA

Table 1

In this table, the activities which were rated *1* by *50% or more* of the first assistants are arranged in descending order of frequency. (Note: The rating *1* was assigned to those activities which must be planned and performed personally by the first assistant.)

Section 1—Items rated 1 by 90% or more of first assistants

Classroom visits
Conferences with teachers following visits
Special conferences with weak teachers
Individual conferences with the principal
Preparation of reports on classroom visits
Communications and interviews with applicants
Attending group conferences called by the principal

Section 2—Items rated 1 by 75% to 89% of first assistants

Conferences with other first assistants about problems of supervision and training of teachers
Preparation of teachers' ratings
Attending faculty meetings
Conferences with deans, grade advisers, about courses
Conferences with substitutes
Preparation of teachers' programs
Attendance at occasional meetings called by director, superintendent, etc.
Special conferences with newly assigned teachers
Interviews with book agents
Assisting Board of Examiners

Personal teaching program
Special conferences with out-of-license teachers
Interviews with pupils seeking to repeat, double, etc.
Attendance at meetings of professional associations
Service as committee member (or chairman) of professional association
Filling out questionnaires like this one

Section 3—Items rated 1 by 50% to 74% of first assistants

Membership on school committees
Writing reports on visits to teachers
Making arrangements to cover classes of absent teachers
Assisting teachers in their preparation for professional examinations
Attendance at commencement exercises
Other professional conferences with teachers
Participation in programs of professional associations
Supervision of part of building during fire, air raid drill, etc.
Service as officer of professional association
Service as member (or officer) of Standing Committee
Planning departmental circulars
Grading and placement of pupils admitted from other schools
Conferences with delinquent pupils
Service on textbook-approval committee
Special conferences with pupil teachers
Promotions, demotions and other transfers of pupils during term
Planning intervisitation of teachers
Report on organization of department
Service on curriculum or syllabus committee sponsored by the Board of Superintendents
Special reports required by principal or administrative assistant
Attendance at course (in-service, university, etc.)
Giving in-service course, in whole or in part
Clerical duties as subject teacher
Conferences with parents
Attendance at assembly programs
Preparation of professional articles for publication
Service on state committees sponsored by State Education Dep't.

Table 2

In this table, the activities which were rated *2* by *50% or more* of the first assistants are arranged in descending order of frequency.

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(Note: The rating *2* was assigned to those activities which demand the personal supervision of the first assistant but which may be carried out cooperatively by teachers.)

Section 1—Items rated 2 or 1, 2 by 75% or more of first assistants

Conferences with program committee
Planning and supervising departmental exhibits
Preparation or selection of visual-aid materials
Planning changes in syllabi to meet new conditions
Preparation of special study materials and tests
Preparation of syllabi for standard or modified courses
Planning uniform examination papers (mid-terms, finals)

Section 2—Items rated 2 or 1, 2 by 50% to 74% of first assistants

Building a departmental library
Selection of textbooks and reference books
Building a subject section of the school library
Planning and supervising departmental extracurricular work
Determining recipients of medal awards from school records
Preparation of suggestions on how to study
Organization and supervision of departmental squads
Giving demonstration or model lessons
Preparation and administration of diagnostic and prognostic tests
Maintaining departmental bulletin board
Planning and supervising storage and distribution of textbooks and materials
Planning and supervising deficiency or other special examinations
Arranging for tutors of weak pupils
Planning and supervising school examinations
Selection of departmental equipment and supplies
Sponsorship of a school club or activity
Preparing time schedules for departmental syllabi
Teaching classes of absent teachers
Guidance conferences with pupils
Collection of funds from teachers
Planning and supervising interclass exchange of textbooks or other materials
Maintaining discipline
Conducting in-service course at the school
Care and maintenance of physical plant and equipment

Table 3

In this table, the activities which were rated *3* by *50% or more* of the first assistants are arranged in descending order of frequency. (Note: The rating *3* was assigned to those activities which require the supervision of the first assistant but should be assigned to a clerk for their mechanical performance.)

Typing and distribution of departmental notices
Preparing stencils of syllabi, exercises, teaching aids, etc.
Preparing examination stencils
Performing or supervising mimeographing of all material
Correspondence, including letters of recommendation, etc.
Preparing summaries of results in examinations; promotions

Table 4

Activities rated 4 by 100 or more first assistants

(Note: The rating *4* was assigned to those activities which are deemed irrelevant to the proper functions of a first assistant. The figures in parentheses indicate the number of first assistants who so rated the activities listed.)

Building assignments given to first assistants (136)
Proctoring assignments given to first assistants (106)
Supervision of building assignments given to others (103)

Table 5

This table lists the activities which 50% or more of the first assistants have either performed personally or caused to be performed during the past two years. On the questionnaire the fact of such performance was indicated by a check (√) next to the item. The items are here arranged in descending order of the total number of checks they received.

Section 1—Activities Performed (or caused to be performed) by 95%-100% of First Assistants

Preparation of reports on classroom visits
Classroom visits
Conferences with teachers following visits
Preparation of teachers' programs
Attending group conferences called by the principal
Maintaining inventories and making inventory reports
Conferences with program committee
Interviews with pupils seeking to repeat, double, etc.
Planning changes in syllabi to meet new conditions

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Selection of departmental equipment and supplies
Guidance conferences with pupils
Special reports required by principal or administrative assistant
Conferences with delinquent pupils
Correspondence
Writing reports on visits to teachers
Planning and conducting departmental meetings
Typing and distribution of departmental notices
Attending faculty meetings
Attendance at meetings of professional associations

Section 2—Activities Performed (or caused to be performed) by 90%-94% of First Assistants

Planning and supervising storage and distribution of textbooks and materials
Interviews with book agents
Preparing requisitions for books and supplies
Selection of textbooks and reference books
Individual conferences with the principal
Special reports required by principal or administrative assistant
Preparation of syllabi for standard and modified courses
Conferences with parents
Supervision of part of building during fire, air raid drill
Listing of meetings, lectures, exhibits for teachers
Planning department circulars
Preparing summaries of results in examinations; promotions
Distribution, collection, storage of textbooks
Membership on school committees
Communications and interviews with applicants
Maintaining files of materials for teachers
Planning uniform examination papers (mid-terms, finals)
Preparing examination stencils
Preparing stencils of syllabi, exercises, teaching aids, etc.
Making arrangements to cover classes of absent teachers

Section 3—Activities Performed (or caused to be performed) by 75% to 89% of First Assistants

Conferences with substitutes
Determining recipients of medal awards from school records
Care and maintenance of physical plant and equipment
Performing or supervising mimeographing of all material

Conferences with other first assistants about problems of supervision and training of teachers
Conferences with deans, grade advisers, about courses
Telephone calls
Attendance at occasional meetings called by director, superintendent, etc.
Maintaining complete departmental files; personnel, etc.
Promotions, demotions and other transfers of pupils during term
Planning and supervising departmental extra-curricular work
Maintaining departmental bulletin board
Maintaining stock rooms (books, etc.); supervising squads
Attendance at commencement exercises
Special conferences with weak teachers
Preparation or selection of visual-aid materials
Preparation of special study materials and tests
Clerical duties as subject teacher
Planning and supervising departmental exhibits
Storage and distribution of equipment and supplies
Planning and supervising examinations (school examinations)
Filling out questionnaires like this one
Grading and placement of pupils admitted from other schools
Preparing time schedules for departmental syllabi
Planning and supervising deficiency or other special school examinations
Organization and supervision of departmental squads
Personal teaching program
Building a departmental library
Attendance at assembly programs
Teaching classes of absent teachers
Preparation of teachers' ratings
Equalizing classes
Special conferences with out-of-license teachers
Other professional conferences with teachers
Planning and supervising administration of Regents' exams.
Maintaining discipline
Preparing weekly (or monthly) orders to supply clerk
Collection of funds from teachers
Listing, posting Regents' marks
Participation in programs of professional associations

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Service as committee member (or chairman) of professional association
Supervision or participation in assembly programs
Special conferences with newly assigned teachers

Section 4—Activities Performed (or caused to be performed) by 50% to 74% of First Assistants

Purchase of departmental medals and other awards
Assisting teachers in their preparation for professional examinations
Special conferences with pupil teachers
Arranging reception and programs for visiting teachers
Preparation of notes for the department on "Recent Advances," etc.
Planning and supervising interclass exchange of textbooks or other materials
Assisting Board of Examiners
Arranging for tutors of weak pupils
Collection and refund of deposits for summer books
Building a subject section of the school library
Keeping a sustaining record of promotions by teachers
Supervision of departmental fund in G.O.
Participation in parent-teacher activities
Giving demonstration or model lessons
Preparation and administration of diagnostic and prognostic tests
Planning intervisitation of teachers
Preparing, posting departmental honor roll
Arranging for printing of special materials
Sponsorship of a school club or activity
All clerical work incidental to any item in this report not specifically mentiond in Group IV (Clerical Activities)
Attendance at course (in-service, university, etc.)
Service as officer of professional association
Purchase and distribution of Regents' question books

Table 6

Time Spent on Professional Work Outside of School Building

Number of replies	226
Median	10.0 hours per week
First quartile	5.0 hours per week
Third quartile	13.8 hours per week

Table 7

Time Spent on Clerical Work

Number of replies	217
Median	11.8 hours per week
First quartile	8.3 hours per week
Third quartile	16.8 hours per week

(Note: No tabulation was made of the replies to the question "During the past two years, what has been the average total number of hours per week that you have spent *in school* on professional work?" The reason for the omission of the tabulation is that many first assistants had apparently failed to include the time spent in teaching.)

Table 8

Additional Activities Cited by First Assistants

Over 130 activities in addition to those listed in the questionnaire were written in by first assistants. Many of these activities are either highly specialized or restricted to the functions of particular departments, such as "Operating a radio station, WNYE", "Service to Carnegie Foundation," "Liaison between schools and theatres," "Supervision of locker room," "Administration of physical examinations of all pupils," "Planning and supervising school decorations, exhibitions, etc." Other additional activities mentioned seem to be more common to first assistants and are listed below:

1. Counseling teachers in their extra-mural problems
2. Encouraging professional contributions, creative work
3. Running "Lost and Found" in department
4. Interviewing failing pupils, follow-up
5. Seeking better coordination with junior high schools
6. Advising the librarian
7. Taking an official section
8. Taking minutes of chairmen's conferences—preparing copy for principal's approval
9. Maintaining cumulative records of pupils in the department
10. Minutes of departments conferences
11. Looking up records of students
12. Collection of absence and lateness reports
13. Addressing faculty meetings
14. Rationing services
15. Professional reading

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The CRMD Goes to High School

ALBERT DOSIK, Food Trades Vocational High School

Opening the facilities of the vocational high school to about 10% of the students in junior high school C.R.M.D. classes offers a golden opportunity to these children. In line with the Bureau C.R.M.D.'s program, many of these boys and girls have an ideal toward which to work. They can picture themselves as citizens of the world; not only partaking of its resources but, in turn, adding to its stock of economic goods and services. The prospect of preparation for worth-while jobs within their capacity engenders a desire and willingness to strive. However, many problems arise in adjusting these subnormal children to the new situations presented by attendance at a vocational high school. The following is an account of the manner in which we at Food Trades Vocational High School attempted to meet and arrive at the most practicable solutions to these problems.

THEN AND NOW. When about three years ago the first C.R.M.D. students were admitted to the school and formed into a class they were programmed exactly as the regular classes were and traveled to different teachers for each academic subject. They are specialists with no previous training in the instruction of those who are mentally retarded. Each teacher struggled heroically to provide the class with profitable materials and experiences. These attempts, although helpful to individual students, failed to give these children the necessary social and emotional opportunities their development requires. It seemed that the actual consummation of the ideal involved was to be frustrated. The entire matter formed the basis for a faculty conference in the Spring term of 1944. It was suggested that these students needed the special attention of one teacher for all their academic work. I was approached and asked to act as the full-time teacher for all their academic work. I accepted with alacrity. A short period of substitute work with a C.R.M.D. class, ten years of experience in teaching the comomn branches, and four years in the vocational high schools on a senior high school history and civics license gave me a little of the background I felt a teacher of such a group needed. But above all, I welcomed the chance to initiate an experiment which I hoped would do a great deal to make further schooling an educationally remunerative process for boys and girls who needed so much of our sympathy and aid.

The register of the class at the re-opening of school in September, 1944, was 15 boys and 13 girls. The following tables will serve to explain the changes which took place in the class in the course of the year:

	Boys	*Girls*
Register 6/44	8	9
DISCHARGED		
Over Age	4	6
Empl. Cert.	2	0
Admitted 9/44	10	6
DISCHARGED		
Empl. Cert.	1	0
Transferred JHS	2	1
Not found	0	1
Moved from City	0	1

Certain conclusions may be drawn from the changes which are indicated in the tables on class composition. Of the original group 12 of the 17 on register have been discharged; whereas only 6 of the 16 who entered this year have been removed from the register. As the boys and girls reach the age at which they can be employed legally there is a tendency for them to leave school.

BASIS OF SELECTION. An attempt at comparing the types of jobs these students now hold with the kind of vocational training they have received gives rather negative results. This can be traced to three causes. Before the Bureau CRMD embarked upon an intensive screening of candidates for vocational high school, a number of the boys and girls sent to this class by the C.R.M.D. Bureau were so close to the legal full-time employment age that most of them remained in school only until jobs could be gotten. Arrangements have since been made so that only those who are about the age of 15 are transferred to our school. In some cases, there never was any great interest in the food trades. Transfer was merely a chance to get into high school. A third cause was the inability of some of these children to absorb the new type of school work they were being offered and failure to adjust themselves to the new situation. The more recently admitted students and those who will be admitted for the fall term of 1945 offer the hope that there will be a greater affinity toward the shop training. No new entrant will be accepted until after interviews with the school guidance counselor, Mr. Bein,

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and with me have indicated a reasonable possibility of success in the school.

MINIMUM ESSENTIALS. In arranging the academic program for the class we had to bear in mind the lack of interest and, sometimes, positive hatred with which these children often approached their school tasks. Standardized tests administered at the beginning of each term revealed that in the tool subjects the class ranged from the second to the fifth grade. All reading, arithmetic and English was adapted to the needs of the children and correlated with the work being done in the shops. Every child could see the need for being able to read recipes, restaurant signs, menus, etc. A knowledge of weights and measures for the various activities carried on in the shops is an absolute necessity. Written work from the shop classes was used each day. In arithmetic a real understanding of the meaning of numbers was attained for the first time. Work in fractions was approached from the practical standpoint of cooking recipes and the fractional weights used in the butcher shops. Reading cards were devised and used by the class. These consisted in part of simple selections from pamphlets explanatory of many phases of the food work. Vocabulary study centered about the actual working-vocabulary of the average person plus the specialized words used in the industry. The use of these words was fostered in the class discussions which were a part of the daily recitations. Actual use would serve to make these language tools part of the student's everyday speech. Job personality and job knowledge were emphasized. A list of desirable characteristics of employee and employer was evolved. Cleanliness, courtesy, and good speech received special attention. Various business forms were analyzed. Checks, bills, order blanks, and time cards were brought to class and put into use. Sample social security forms were examined and filled in. Attributes of good citizenship were fostered by actual precept in class co-operation and by increasing familiarity with the problems of the community, the nation, and the world. Each week a special period was provided in which talks were delivered on questions of interest to the whole class. Students served as judges, and class discussion followed each talk.

PROJECTS. A project involving the gathering of job information continued for almost 3 months before interest petered out. Every student amassed material for a scrap book. The topic of unions,

their purposes and their successes and failures occupied a great deal of the time allotted to the unit. A class party came next, for which all the written material—menus, invitations, signs, records etc. —and refreshments were prepared by the children. The period from April to June is being used for a simple study and explanatory chart of the United Nations Conference. In all of these activities simple skills involving neatness in arrangement, painting, drawing, sketching, cutting, lettering, etc., were developed. Two class bulletin boards, which feature class and shop news and current events, were in the hands of a class committee.

EVALUATION. Although tests, the traditional means of evaluation, were used, other types of checks were adopted too. On an index card for each student was recorded an anecdotal account of high-lighted spots in the year's events. Individual oral reading cards indicated areas showing and needing improvement. These were discussed with the students. Self-checks in reading were provided. Speed and comprehension were tested by the children themselves. In addition each student kept a personal record of his reading by listing, on a special card provided for him, the stories he read. Testing in this way became a cooperative process between student and teacher, and among the students, and not a punitive measure in which the results were awaited with fear.

IMPROVEMENT. Although it has been our aim to foster the growth of acceptable attitudes and ideals, and we believe this has been evidenced in the daily give and take of the classroom, it is difficult to test growth in these intangibles even with the greatly improved modern testing instruments. However, we have tested and will continue to test the rate of improvement in the tool subjects. The results of the Metropolitan Achievement Tests given in May, 1945, are indicative of the effect the methods used have had on two key subjects like reading and arithmetic. The following table comparing the marks achieved on this test with those of tests previously administered definitely demonstrates increased ability in these subjects. In every single case there has been some increase in reading and arithmetic achievement ranging from 3 months to as much as 3 years, 1 month. Since for the older boys and girls the last test was given as long as 3 years ago, the proportionate growth may not seem to be as great.

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Student	I.Q.	Date of Test	Reading Grade	Arithmetic Grade
A.	61	6-44	3.0	3.6
		5-45	3.9	4.7
B.	75	6-44	3.0	3.0
		5-45	5.2	6.1
C.	73	6-44	3.6	3.0
		5-45	4.3	4.9
D.	75	6-44	3.0	3.6
		5-45	3.9	3.9
E.	74	6-44	3.0	4.0
		5-45	4.5	4.5
F.	71	1-44	3.3	3.6
		5-45	4.1	4.9
G.	50-75	1.42	3.6	3.4
		5-45	5.9	5.3
H.	71	1-45	3.7	3.4
		5-45	4.9	3.9
I.	N. D.	1-45	4.8	5.1
		5-45	5.3	5.5
J.	72	6-44	3.0	5.0
		5-45	4.9	5.3
K.	73	6-43	3.6	3.7
		5-45	4.9	4.6
L.	64	6-43	3.6	3.2
		5-45	4.7	4.2
M.	68	6-42	3.2	2.8
		5-45	4.8	4.4

* N.D.—Not determined.

SHOP ACTIVITY. For shop work a somewhat different procedure had to be adopted. The boys and girls were separated and, since each group was comparatively small, added to other regular shop classes. The plan called for rotation of each group in all four of the shops. Where possible, and if a special aptitude for a particular type of shop activity was demonstrated, individual students were permitted to specialize. As the teacher of this special class it became my duty to visit these shop classes very often so that it would be possible for me to lend a hand in the solution of any problems that might arise. I was in this way enabled to secure a knowledge of the work going on in the shops so that academic work could be correlated with shop work. At times shifting individual students to different shops became nececsary, when inability to adjust to the assigned shop was shown. A number of the boys and girls worked

after school at jobs related to their shops. In almost all cases these positions had been secured through the shop teachers and the placement division.

PROBLEMS. Certain difficulties presented particular problems. These were inevitable because of the nature of the experiment. In many instances there were no suitable materials of instruction available for the class. Reading materials simple enough for the grade level of many of the children were often so childish that they could not possibly be used. It was necessary to write short articles and stories which would be within their grasp and at the same time on a level with the social maturity of these children. No class readers conforming to our need were available. Work books in reading were secured, through the efforts of the principal, to serve our purpose.

Social and emotional adjustment was one of the greatest needs of these children. Daily contacts with other boys and girls of their own ages in shop classes were a potent factor in giving these students the happy realization that they were on an equal plane with others. Fortunately, all recognized their limitations and were happier placed in a special class suitable to their own capabilities, rather than in class situations in which they knew they could not participate. They realized that the regular academic work was far beyond their abilities. We strove to inculcate the attitude that they could and would do work necessary to the world's welfare and satisfying to themselves; that each boy and girl could accomplish some things as well as, and in some cases better than, other young people. A mental and emotional readjustment did take place as these boys and girls found happiness in successfully doing things.

Radio in the Curriculum*

ELIZABETH FREILICHER, James Madison High School

Educators who have long protested against Radio's abuses have at last received official approbation in the recently published F.C.C. *Report on Radio.** Deploring the industry's disregard of its responsibility as a dispenser of a public service commodity, the report

* Federal Communication Commission—Report on Radio—March, 1946.

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criticized the excessive commercialism of radio today, with its emphasis upon sales and balance sheets and its comparative indifference to educational and public service programming.

As educators, we must assume some responsibility for radio's shortcomings, for we have neglected to give it serious consideration in the curriculum. Our indifference to a medium which is rapidly becoming the most powerful force in shaping world-opinion is regrettable. If we are to save radio from the mediocrity which makes it a step-child of the arts, we must become radio-conscious.

TOMORROW'S LISTENERS. In a few years our students will become part of the mature listening audience. Their acceptance or rejection of programs will serve as a guide for the broadcasters. Our objective should be to equip them to act as discriminating and intelligent listeners who will encourage broadcasters to produce superior radio programs. If we help create a radio audience above the average in taste and understanding, we can be sure that the future will see marked improvement in radio programming. The radio industry and the advertisers who support it respond to constructive criticism on the part of the "unseen audience" because they are dependent upon the good-will of the listeners.

WHY "SOAP OPERAS"? It is because the average listener is not sufficiently vocal in his protests that the advertisers persist in overloading the networks with such types of programs as the "soap operas." These continuing daytime serials occupy almost five consecutive hours of broadcast time each day on two major networks. Yet only 12.9% of the listeners tune in to them. Approximately 87% of the potential audience would rather listen to some other type of program. Unfortunately there is little variety offered them. Despite their rather limited audience appeal, the advertisers find it profitable to sponsor "soap operas" because production costs are low. The public is therefore given little consideration. Time which could be spent on educational or cultural programs is wasted on a type of drama the value of which is extremely doubtful.

Of course, spokesmen for the broadcasters may argue that the serial is a "form of Americana" which has a beneficial effect upon its listeners because it helps them find *"ethical solutions to their own*

*problems."** On the other hand, in recent studies of soap operas, they have been described as meretricious, tawdry, sentimental escapism which appeals to immature and ignorant minds and tends to rationalize frustrations and maladjustments.† The average housewife will tell you that she listens to the serials when she is doing her chores because it provides an escape from the drudgery of housework. Psychiatrists question the therapeutic value of this "escape." Although she may find temporary emotional release, her concentration upon vicarious experiences might render incapable of facing reality. According to one radio columnist** women should have *"enough varied interests so that their own minds don't bore them to death. The woman who is interested in art, music, literature, or world affairs doesn't need a radio serial to make her forget she's ironing."*

A DISTORTED WORLD. Even if the serial were not unhealthy, its inferior dramatic standards scarcely warrant the amount of air-time devoted to it. The world of the serial is a distorted world where real issues like housing and unemployment and price stabilization are rarely given mature consideration. They follow the same pattern of "people getting into trouble and out again," the weak being misled by the evil and saved by the good. The writing, in most cases, is hackneyed and cliché, and the development is dissipated in hundreds of minor conflicts which stretch the program on into the years. The characters are types, not people, and are usually incompletely motivated. Occasionally we find serials which rise above this rather low standard, but on the whole they are of inferior quality. It should be obvious that five hours consumed by this type of program is too much. It is our duty to help our students, the prospective patrons of soap operas, to realize this.

Another example of what the FCC calls "program imbalance" is the "juvenile thriller." These are exciting and fantastic melodramas concerned with criminals and outlaws who boldly defy authority and break all conventions of society. Although most "thrillers" are supposed to teach that "crime does not pay," the adventures of the villains are made so fascinating that most children cannot help but identify themselves with the lawbreakers.

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* Mrs. Irma Phillips in a statement published in *Variety*, March, 1946.
† Article on Soap Operas—*Fortune Magazine*, March, 1946.
** Ruth Millett—*World Telegram*, March, 1946.

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CHANGE THE PATTERN. There is a difference of opinion regarding the effect of this release, but surely we must agree that more worthy substitutes could be found. Following the same pattern of adventure, these programs could stress the importance of community loyalties, racial and religious harmony and international good-will and cooperation. Recently, some of the networks have become more mindful of their obligations to our future citizens. The producers of Superman, one of the most popular of the juvenile programs, have been the first to take a step in the right direction. They have completely changed the underlying theme of the program. Now, Superman is featured as a humanitarian concerned with the problems of juvenile behavior, racial and religious tolerance, and other democratizing ideas. The program communicates its message without sacrificing the spirit of adventure which children find so attractive. If this program in its new guise continues in popularity, it may serve as an example to other producers. Certainly we should be interested in this development. Radio is a wonderful educational medium, and we should see that it is used to its fullest extent.

EDUCATIONAL NOT BORING. Programs labelled as "educational" need not be boring. If these are produced carefully with a knowledge of radio techniques, their entertainment value may compare favorably with any daytime serial or melodrama. Thanks to those radio writers and producers with integrity and social awareness, there are some very fine educational programs on the air—although not nearly enough. *Exploring the Unknown,* heard every Sunday at 9 o'clock P.M. over WOR, is one of the best. This is a series of dramatized lessons on science covering such topics as Einstein's theory, the telephone, psychoanalysis, nutrition and others equally interesting. The program is expertly written and is based on authoritative sources. It utilizes outstanding acting and musical talent. Students who have been introduced to this program find it absorbing listening. Another educational program which deserves our commendation is *Pacific Story* heard every Sunday on WEAF at 11:30 P.M. The program introduces us to the problems of our neighbors in the Far East. Unfortunately this program is aired at an hour when most youthful listeners should be in bed. The program is sustained by the network and like most "sustainers" or unsponsored programs it is relegated to an unpopular hour. If sufficient letters of approval were received by the station to warrant a

change to a more suitable hour, the network officials might be open to persuasion, especially if the chances of selling the program were thereby increased. Our students should be encouraged to inform broadcasters of their likes as well as their dislikes.

SUGGESTED PROGRAMS. There are a number of other programs which may be used to enrich our teaching. Here are just a few:

For English Classes
Author Meets the Critics
Invitation to Learning
Columbia Workshop
Books Bring Adventure
Eternal Light
American Negro Theatre

For Social Studies Classes
Youth Forum
Assignment Home
American Portrait
New World A'Coming
America United
The Chicago Roundtable
Our Foreign Policy
We, the People
Town Hall Meeting of the Air
Congress on the Air

For Science Classes
Pioneers of Science
Exploring the Unknown
The Doctors Talk It Over

For Home Economics Classes
Consumer Time
Home Is What You Make It
The Most for Your Money

For Music Classes
Masterwork Hour
Symphony Hall
Great Moments in Music
Music for Young People
Music of the United Nations

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New York Philharmonic
Boston Symphony
Philadelphia Orchestra

If we guide our pupils by introducing them to programs such as these, our results will be awarding. Students exposed to better programs will no longer be satisfied with trite and sentimental "washboard weepers."

TEACHERS' JOB. Our problem is to train our students to use radio intelligently. One way to do this is to introduce a unit in radio appreciation in the English curriculum. Such a course might include a critical analysis of current program types and the study of criteria for judging these. The objective would be to determine what makes the superior radio program, whether it be the quiz, the audience participation program or the drama. In one course in radio appreciation, students conducted polls of listeners to determine average tastes and reasons for program popularity. They analyzed their own reactions as they listened and reported on radio articles appearing in newspapers, periodicals and trade publications. This careful study was consummated with the preparation of a guide for student listening. One of the most interesting projects was the preparation of a weekly radio column for the *Radio Workshop*. This was an intelligent and mature critique of radio programs which put to shame some of the radio gossip columns appearing in our daily newspaper. Among the subjects covered was an original evaluation of radio stereotypes.

PURPOSEFUL LISTENING. The study of radio drama affords another opportunity for training in purposeful listening. Radio drama is young but we find many classics in the field. The first poetic drama written for radio, *The Fall of the City*, by Archibald MacLeish, has been followed by others equally noteworthy. These include Norman Corwin's *Untitled, On a Note of Triumph, They Fly Through the Air, The Long Name None Could Spell*, Norman Rosten's *Ballad of Bataan*, Stephen V. Benet's *They Burned the Books*, Bernard Schoenfeld's *Johnny Appleseed*, Millard Lampell's *The Lonesome Train*, Paul Gallico's *The Snow Goose*, Morton Wishengrad's *The Battle of the Warsaw Ghetto*, William N. Robson's *Open Letter on Race Hatred*, Arch Oboler's *Bedtime Story*, *Letter At Midnight* and many others. These scripts have been published in magazines and collections and are available in school and public libraries. Several collections of radio plays suitable for classroom study have been published. Norman Corwin's *Thirteen* makes an excellent radio text, for it contains a variety of dramatic types; the humorous *My Client Curley*, the satiric *Plot to Overthrow Christmas*, the sensitive dog story, *The Odyssey of Runyon Jones*, the poignant and moving social drama *Appointment*, and others. Several collections of Arch Oboler's plays have been published. Among them are *Fourteen* by Oboler, *Plays for Americans*, and the *Oboler Omnibus*. These contain examples of carefully constructed and inspiring dramas concerned with social, political and economic issues. A new collection of dramas, *Radio Drama in Action*, edited by Erik Barnouw, also contains some fine examples of dramatic writing. These and others should make interesting and stimulating reading for students in the English classes.

RADIO MODELS. Radio plays might also serve as models for creative writing. There is a crying need in the radio industry for original radio scripts. We should encourage our students to lend their talents to the field of radio writing.

Radio's growth as an art form depends upon many factors, but we can help it reach maturity by giving it the respect and consideration which it deserves. We have a responsibility as educators in a democracy to make radio an educational medium which will bring culture and understanding of the democratic processes into every American home. Our present negative attitude is allowing it to drift aimlessly so that it is gravitating to a level where its main concern is with innocuous and immature entertainment. We, the people, and not F.C.C., should be the watchdogs to see that this important medium assumes its proper place in our society.

Post-War Health Education

JOSEPH CARL SALTMAN
Bronx High School of Science

World Wars 1 and 2 uncovered the same weaknesses in our social structure; namely, the lack of fitness or well-being and preparedness in our adults, and the increase of delinquency in our youth.

While the responsibility must be shared by all agencies, the home,

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the church, the community, and the school, educators are especially interested in the problem as it concerns them.

FITNESS OR WELL-BEING. The term "fitness" or "well-being" signifies much more than normal physiological balance; it is all inclusive and embraces all the phases of health, such as mental alertness, physical fitness, emotional stability, moral strength, spiritual growth, and social adjustment.

DELINQUENCY. It becomes the duty of each agency to assume some part of the job in eliminating delinquency in our youth. In time of peace as well as in time of war the schools can exert a powerful influence in the social-adjustment phase of health.

Activities must be provided outside the classroom, with adequate supervision by sympathetic and understanding personnel, where poise, self-control, consideration for others and all the other desirable traits of character may be developed.

ATTITUDE TOWARD SCHOOL. Perhaps our first job would be to get boys and girls to look forward to attendance at school. The attitude which has been so traditional, "Well, I guess I have to go to school," can be changed. With a changed attitude there would not be the poor attendance we find on every minor religious holiday. No excuse could keep boys and girls away from the school which provided activities of a social nature outside the class room.

THE SCHOOL BUILDING. The school must become the very center of the child's daily life. Community and home activities must be carried into the school environment. The wall of partition between the school, the community, and the home, can be broken down. Instead of living in one world and getting book learning in another, the child's whole experience can become united in a "one world" experience.

No building site ought to be selected which does not provide ample space for outdoor play areas. These play areas must be considered just as essential as science laboratories, shops, and classrooms, if we are to solve the problems of fitness and delinquency.

The play areas can be planned so that they become available for use by the students during and after school hours on regular school

days, and to the youth and adults in the community on holidays and week-ends.

BUILDING FACILITIES. At present, all students who have a so-called free or unassigned period are required to remain in the study hall, the auditorium. Instead of an enforced study period, which has been introduced as a matter of convenience and not because the study time is necessary, students should be able to participate in extra-classroom activities.

This would free the auditorium for use as a little theatre with instruction in stage designing, stage lighting, dramatics, platform techniques in public speaking and radio work, and for the showing of regular feature and educational moving pictures.

The following are some of the extra-classroom facilities that might be made available in lieu of enforced auditorium study periods:

1. Music room with albums of fine records by the masters for the music lovers, and for teaching the appreciation of worth-while music
2. Radio room, where students may listen to educational progams as well as to the broadcast of baseball games and other sports events
3. Social room or lounge, where boys and girls may learn social dancing while practicing the social amenities in general behavior
4. Arts and crafts workshops where activity may be carried on informally in ceramics, pottery, papier maché, metal, leather, jewelry, painting and sculpturing.
5. Room for recreational games such as ping-pong, pool, and billiards.
6. Bowling alleys to provide a recreative activity which has grown in popularity with boys and girls throughout the country.

PHYSICAL EDUCATION ACTIVITIES. The following statements are taken from the many found in the recent Harvard Report. They are indicative of an enriched concept of a well rounded personality that should be a primary objective in all education:

1. *"The educational process has somewhat failed of its purpose if it has produced the merely bookish youth who lacks spirit and is all light without warmth."*
2. *"The school should be concerned with the health of its pupils both physical and mental. The human body must be healthy, fit for work, able to carry out the purposes of the mind."*

We might have found a better prepared citizenry in both world wars if the schools had allowed adequate time in the curriculum for a complete vigorous physical-education activity-program.

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There are a few schools in the city of New York where health education is placed first in the students' programs, followed by English and the other academic subjects. In most of the schools, however, the programming of health education is placed wherever there happens to be a free period. It receives last consideration.

THE PROGRAM. The minimum program for each student should be 2 double periods a week in the gymnasium and one afternoon a week on the playground or in the gymnasium for after-school intramural or varsity athletics.

The double period in the gymnasium is for instruction in the fundamental techniques of all sports, in athletic skills, in apparatus, mat, and floor stunts, in dancing and rhythms, in swimming and life-saving, and in general body-building exercises which will give poise, agility, coordination, quick reaction time, courage and self-confidence, and a feeling of well-being, fitness, and readiness.

The double period will allow sufficient time for students to engage in a total learning and practice session followed by a shower or swim. This would eliminate the unhygienic practice of dressing over body perspiration after a 30-minute activity period.

The requirement of a minimum of one afternoon after school for intramural competition or varsity play will provide at least two hours of wholesome competition and team or group membership experience so valuable in the whole educational process.

HEALTH TEACHING. Dr. Stieglitz said at a recent health conference, *"Health must be earned; it cannot be given. It requires effort."*

Health teaching is not a matter of supplying health facts, but includes a definite program which provides for the inculcation of desirable health habits through health practices. This cannot be confined to any one department. Each teacher, each subject, has a health contribution to make.

Preaching the desirability of "cleanliness" in the hygiene class, or showing the injurious effects that may result from the bacteria that lodge under the fingernails will not guarantee the health practice of "clean hands before eating." Providing lavatory facilities with soap and towels and insisting that every student wash his hands before going to the cafeteria would be the way to inculcate the desirable health habit.

The scientific principles underlying good health habits may be presented in the science classrooms, but it must remain for the teacher of physical education activities to teach, direct, supervise, and follow up the health practices desired, in the various health education activities: the individual health conference of the health service program, the gymnasium and playground activities, the intramural and varsity team conditioning routine, and in the swimming pool and shower-activity program.

Many schools are requiring and getting every student to undergo an annual physical examination and dental check-up by the family physician and dentist. The objective here is to inculcate the habit of going to the doctor's and dentist's offices periodically. Having the doctor come to the school defeats the purpose.

Our need is not for doctors and dentists in the school but for school district hospital clinics where remediable defects can be corrected. We are interested in the correction of the defects once they are uncovered. The school district hospital clinic will take care of the large number of boys and girls who cannot afford the private professional assistance.

FACILITIES—OUTDOORS. As I stated above, no school building should be planned without the provision for outdoor play areas. The following activities must be considered in this planning, and the facilities must be made available to the youth and adults in the community as well as to the students of the school:

1. Track athletics: both track and field events
2. Baseball and softball diamonds
3. Soccer field
4. Handball courts
5. Tennis courts
6. Girls' field hockey
7. Roller skating and bicycle riding areas
8. Ice skating: the roller skating area flooded during the winter months

ACTIVITIES—INDOORS. Here again, all the facilities should be made available for use by the youth and adults of the community as well as by the students of the school, for a complete program of activities which would include:

1. Self-testing activities: indoor sprint, rope climbing, etc.
2. Sport techniques: basketball, volleyball, badminton, deck tennis, paddle tennis, golf (cages), boxing, wrestling
3. Stunts: horizontal bars and mats for the girls' gymnasium, and in addition, parallel bars and horses for the boys

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4. Dancing and rhythms: loud speaker system for playing social and square-dance records, in addition to pianos
5. Swimming pool: at least one in every school building, not only for physical fitness and recreation but for the preservation of life
6. Showers: maze showers for girls and group showers for boys to take care of large numbers in the double period gymnasium classes and in the after school intramurals
7. Boys' gymnasium balcony, and floor collapsible bleachers: to accommodate large numbers to watch basketball games and demonstrations

CAMPING ACTIVITIES. Many may feel that the building facilities mentioned for social development have no place in the schools. Others may not be ready to extend the field of education to include camping. The rich content inherent in camping activities for physical, mental, social, and spiritual development is too valuable to be ignored by the schools.

Peters states: *"There is no type of training that one needs for success in any aspect of life that is not the school's proper concern. It is not its privilege to draw itself up within the limits of a traditional curriculum and say, 'These other things do not belong to me.' If they pertain to fitness for effective living, whether related to health, wealth, sociability, knowledge, beauty, or rightness, and if they can be improved at all through training, they do belong to the school."*

Having children live in a country environment surrounded by trees and the wooded trail, grass and flowers, and a peaceful lake, even for a period of two weeks, will present infinite possibilities for the development of those traits of character so needed for life in a democracy such as ours. The majority of our boys and girls never experience that self-reliant feeling that comes from living away from home and being intimately associated with others their own age.

The following activities of camp life must find their way into our schools some day, since the school is going to be the very center—the home, the school, the neighborhood—of the child's entire experience:

1. Nature study: living close to trees, rocks and streams
2. Woodcraft, campcraft, and scouting activities
3. Canoeing, canoe trips, and camping out
4. Hiking, mountain climbing, and camping out
5. Fishing, sailing, and boating
6. Riflery and archery
7. Photography in all its phases: printing and developing
8. Arts and crafts: ceramics, and work in all media

9. Painting, music, and dramatics
10. Horseback riding
11. Agricultural activities: farming and gardening
12. Animal life study: cows, chickens, pigs, rabbits, etc.
13. Group morale: singing and cheering
14. All land and water sports

Each school community should own a camp site within a radius of 50 miles from the school center. The camping season might extend from April to October of each year. Even if a boy or girl enjoyed the rich camping experience for two weeks once in a few years, it would be tremendously worth while.

High Points

1. The main concern of the school during this post-war period should be to modify the traditional curriculum in such a way as to produce a "fit" citizenry and a socially well adjusted "stabile" youth.
2. Physical education and health must be given priority as far as the programming is concerned: a *minimum* of two *double* periods a week every term for gymnasium activity, plus a *minimum required* two-hour session after school devoted to intramural or varsity athletics.
3. A complete program of individual health guidance and remedial work tied up closely with a school district hospital clinic.
4. The provision of facilities which will carry many of the worthwhile home and neighborhood activities into the school environment, so that the time outside the class room may be utilized to advantage for social development.
5. To acquire a camping site for each school district so that all boys and girls may experience living away from home, on their own, in activities which cannot be supplied in school.

High Points

THE ANTIQUARIAN'S CORNER

Anthologies continue to pour from the presses. A rain and hail of cat, dog, and horse stories descends upon us. Stories written in prison, stories written in the open spaces, stories written on mountain tops; women in crime, women in love, women in politics; men

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of thought, men who have climbed the heights, men who have plumbed the depths:—every possible type of grouping has given somebody the idea of composing an anthology.

Yet the possibilities have not been exhausted. Taking advantage of recent correspondence with a noted anthologist and publisher, I suggested a subject so far neglected by the present-day anthologists. *Comment:* idea very feasible, but the market is swamped with prior commitments and all florilegium space is rented for the next few years. In other words, a housing shortage exists in the flower market. However, if anyone has the time and patience to cull from the field, and above all, if the seeker knows a publisher who is willing to take action, here's an idea for still another anthology.

Get together passages from fact or fiction pertaining to the school scene. In a small way I have been compiling such material, some of which has appeared in this department. The field is tremendous: more samples will appear in future issues.

Much wisdom and pleasure can be found in culling these selections from the stories of schools and schoolmasters of different times and systems.

I mentioned in a previous Corner that some pages of Kipling's *Stalky & Co.* should be included in such an anthology. My selection would be the chapter "Regulus" which describes an old-style Latin lesson by an old-style teacher. In addition, I'd find room for some notes on the character of that teacher, named King in the book but referred to as C——— by Kipling elsewhere.

King was an excellent scholar whose secret ambition it was to translate Theocritus. Like other teachers of his day he paid little attention to teaching as an art. A teacher of the classics and of English literature, which he taught by construing and parsing, King had no use for *"the modern side,"* mathematics or the sciences. He had a violent temper, a crabbed outlook, a gift of sarcasm and of cutting remarks which the boys called the "shut-up." He was rated the best *"shutter-up"* of the school.

We see him in action in the *"Regulus"* piece. Kipling assures us that this is but a *"pale rendering of his style."* The boys were called on to translate or *"construe"* as a review lesson the famous Horatian ode, Book III, 5, which begins, *"Caelo tonantem credidimus Jovem."* If you wish to refresh your memory of the episode, get *The Complete Stalky & Co.* The chapter is not included in the abridged version generally found on library shelves.

The boys, fifteen or sixteen years old, struggled to extract the poet's meaning line by line, phrase by phrase, while the sardonic master interrupted constantly with a barrage of commentary, insults, denunciations, sarcasm, innuendo, mock-praise, irony, professorial witticisms, and an occasional helpful hint. The rest of the class, any one of whom might be the next victim, watched the duel between pupil and master with fascination. An explosion came when a pupil, mistaking an adjective for a verb, translated accordingly.

King burst forth:

"I am painfully aware by bitter experience that I cannot give you any idea of the passion, the power, the—the—the essential guts of the lines which you have so foully outraged in our presence. But, so so far as in me lies, I will strive to bring home to you, Vernon, the fact that there exist in Latin a few pitiful rules of grammar, of syntax, nay, even of declension, which were not created for your incult sport—your Boeotian diversion. .You will therefore, Vernon, write out and bring to me tomorrow a word-for-word English-Latin translation of the Ode, together with a full list of all adjectives—an adjective is not a verb, Vernon, as the Lower Third will tell you—all adjectives, their number, case, and gender. Even now I haven't begun to deal with you faithfully."

The erring Vernon did not wither under this blast, but apologized like a gentleman.

"I'm—I'm very sorry, sir," he stammered.

Unsatisfied, King rubbed more salt into the wounds.

"You mistake the symptoms, Vernon. You are possibly discomfited by the imposition, but sorrow postulates some sort of mind, intellect, nous. *Your rendering of* probrosis *alone stamps you as lower than the beasts of the field. Will some one take the taste out of our mouths?"*

Kipling was very often the butt of King's ridicule, especially in the literature class. However, much later in life he looked back with affection upon his encounters with King. Modern psychologists may not agree with Kipling's tracts on educational methods.

"Under him I came to feel that words could be used as weapons, for he did me the honor to talk at me plentifully; and yet our year-in-year-out form-room bickerings gave us both something to play with. One learns more from a good scholar in a rage than from a score of lucid and laborious drudges; and to be made the butt of

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one's companions in full form is no bad preparation for later experiences."

*"There must still be masters of the same sincerity; and gramophone records of such good men, on the brink of profanity, struggling with a Latin form, would be more helpful to education than bushels of printed books."**

* * *

G. C. Beresford, Kipling's classmate, has a few interesting observations on teachers of the Stalky period, 1878-1882.**

Kindness Not Expected

"Some boys like the sense of terror a severe kind of master instils; they feel sick and bored unless a disastrous possibility for themselves or for somebody else is looming somewhere in the background. What is the use of going to school unless there is a fine crop of canings and floggings to witness or experience or talk about?"

* * *

"In spite of his kindliness, he was a fairly efficient teacher." (Refers to teacher known as the Padre.)

* * *

How to Be Popular

King really thought that he was acting in the best interests of the boys. He once declared that his motto of education was based on a line in Juvenal, *"Maxima debetur puero reverentia."* ("The greatest respect is due to youth.") Beresford thought King was a very good teacher.

"Since he was one of the few who could add outside and side-light interest to class work and yet lose none of the grip of discipline, his classes were more thought of and looked forward to than those of other masters. His marginal talks, his little sallies, seemed to teach us much, and to be remembered much longer, than the regulation, keep-in-step performances, textbook in hand. The side-light performance is perhaps quite common nowadays; but the masters

* *Something of Myself*, by Rudyard Kipling, (Garden City; Doubleday, Doran & Co., 1937).

** *Schooldays with Kipling*, by G. C. Beresford, (London: Victor Gollancz Ltd., 1936).

in my time generally had not enough individuality or knowledge of the world for these excursions. Unfortunately, the average schoolboy was often foolish enough to take an unwarrantable advantage of these easements when they were made, and with the weaker masters the class got out of hand."

* * *

The side-lights are indeed quite common today and are expected without the asperity. In addition, there are improvements that Beresford and his compeers never dreamed of. Actually, King's roughness might be interpreted by modern students of behavior as a "defense-mechanism." Beresford noted that his system was *"perhaps too mechanical and involved more suppression of individuality than was conducive to true education and wise training. However, it made things easy for King, which to him was what really mattered."*

There are two chapters in Beresford's book which are worthy of being compared with Kipling's own account of a lesson.

One narrates an English lesson in which Kipling gave his opinion that Walt Whitman was the greatest living poet (about 1880). By unfair selections and weight of sarcasm, King demolished both Whitman and Kipling while the rest of the class, *"the band of sycophants,"* howled in glee. It was hardly the type of lesson which would receive a favorable criticism today, but it does indicate how far we have gone since those days in enabling and encouraging a pupil to form an independent judgment.

The other chapter, pure fantasy, shows a battle between King and Kipling in which the latter triumphs as he was unable to do in real life. The memory of the warfare between the pupils and the teachers must have rankled if more than a half-century later, a witness could recall it so vividly and achieve revenge through his imagination.

MORRIS ROSENBLUM
Samuel J. Tilden High School

"SALVAGED—ONE LIFE!"

This is a factual statement concerning one of the many problems cases which must be met and handled by the guidance departments of our city high schools. All too frequently we hear reports of the difficulties, often serious, which beset our boys and girls and the resultant unhappy endings. All too many of our school problems

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find solution by the simple act of leaving school. These cases are by no means solved; they merely pose a problem which society at large is not equipped to handle. The daily routine of the guidance counselor is, therefore, a wearing one and the concrete results are difficult to see and evaluate. At times, however, it is possible to assist in clearing up youth problems and see the result while the youngster is still with us. Such cases are extremely gratifying and make it possible to carry on the fight against the myriad problems and difficulties of adolescence.

ADJUSTMENT. On February 2, 1942, the Woodrow Wilson Vocational High School opened its doors for the first time. At that time we offered two courses for boys. One was the traditional vocational course and the other was the traditional academic course. John Doe entered as a freshman student at the age of 14. He was a graduate of Public School 119, Queens, where his record was highly satisfactory. He is a boy of good intelligence and received an I.Q. grade of 130 when tested in June, 1934. He enrolled in the academic course and completed one year of work. During this period of time, he was completely happy and had made a perfect adjustment to school life. During this first school year it would have been very safe to have classified John as an above-average student, who would never pose any problem of school or personality adjustment.

In February, 1943, it was found necessary to disband the academic course at our school and devote ourselves exclusively to vocational instruction. It was decided to allow each academic student a free choice of a neighboring academic high school. John Doe seemingly understood the need for the change and voluntarily asked to be transferred to the "X" High School. Thus this boy's career at Woodrow Wilson was closed, or so we believed at that time.

MALADJUSTMENT. However, on February 15, 1943, John reappeared and actually begged to be allowed to transfer back to our school. He told me that he had gone to his new school for four days but was "afraid" to remain there. He could not give any sound reason for his fear but continued insisting that he "could not" attend school there. It was decided to readmit him to our school. It was, however, necessary to transfer him to the vocational course because it was the only course being offered. He was allowed to

choose his own shop and selected electrical installation and practice. He lasted in his new class exactly four days and then came to me again. This time he asked for a chance to transfer out of school again. He did not like his course; he did not like his classmates; he did not like his teachers; in short, he was a very unhappy and confused youngster. We tried to get at the bottom of his trouble, but all he could tell us was that he did not wish to stay any longer and must have a transfer. After we exhausted all possibilities we agreed to assist in securing a transfer for him. This time he picked the "Y" High School. Once again the case of John Doe was closed as far as we were concerned. It was obvious, however, that John was going through a very difficult period and was extremely agitated and distraught. At home, his mother had met this sudden change in her son with annoyance and grave doubts as to the genuineness of John's "school fear" complex. The home did nothing to ease John's mind or to make him feel at all secure in his world which had so suddenly begun to collapse about him.

I contacted "Y" High School after a two-week period and was advised that John had come to school on and off until early March. However, he was terrified by his new surroundings and would leave school abruptly in the middle of a recitation class. He would return home to be met by threats and pleadings by his family. John was at a complete loss to explain why he stayed away from school or left before the end of the day, but he knew that he could not stay in school. His only reason was that he was afraid. By this time, his hope for an education seemed lost forever. He was hopelessly enmeshed in his own fears and going to school had become a much dreaded activity.

BUREAU OF CHILD GUIDANCE. In March, 1943, John was referred to the Bureau of Child Guidance by the "Y" High School. It was at this time that he came to the attention of Dr. Grace McLean Abbate, M.D., who is assigned as school psychiatrist to the Bureau of Child Guidance. After routine tests, it was decided that John was emotionally unfit for further schooling of the traditionally accepted type and was, accordingly, discharged from "Y" High School to the custody of the Bureau of Child Guidance.

From April, 1943, to February, 1944, John was not on any school register. During this period he reported regularly to Dr. Abbate for consultation and remedial treatment. John's home was contacted

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and efforts were made to bring active cooperation from the parents in order to facilitate the rehabilitation of this young man. His parents were made to realize his problem and made adjustments in their relations toward John which were helpful. During this period of time, Dr. Abbate did not try to force John's return to school but, by inference and suggestion, gradually re-awakened his interest in the benefits to be derived from normal relationships with boys and girls of his age. Slowly but surely, John began to show signs of interest in the possibiltiy of a resumption of schooling. A great doubt existed in his mind as to whether or not he would be successful in such an attempt and Dr. Abbate kept on with her fight to eradicate this fear. Finally, in February, 1944, John was "sold" on trying again.

READJUSTMENT. John felt that he had his best chance for success at Woodrow Wilson. Accordingly, Dr. Abbate, contacted me and we tried to plan for John's future. Since his great problem was "fear" of the school situation, it was decided to try a rather novel experiment. Dr. Abbate had discovered that John had a talent for art. I knew that John had always been fond of his Spanish teacher during his first year of schooling with us. After our academic course was disbanded, this teacher had taken over a program of art instruction. We decided, therefore, to allow John to be a "guest student" in this teacher's art class and to register in no other classes until he himself asked for that privilege. Accordingly, John came to my office and I told him that he was welcome to come to this art class and stay as long as he wished provided he came to me each day before reporting to class and after leaving.

Before he entered the class, I called the teacher into conference and explained the whole situation to him. He remembered John well and was anxious to help him. It was with a great deal of trepidation that Dr. Abbate and I awaited the outcome of our little experiment.

John remained in class for the entire time during his first day and reported to me at the end of the day with obvious triumph written on his countenance. "How was it, John?" I asked. He looked right at me and said, "Why, it's great! Just like old times. Thanks a lot for letting me try." He seemed very anxious to return the next day.

After his second day he came to me and asked to be allowed to follow a full program with his class. I was afraid this step was be-

ing taken too soon, but after speaking to the teacher, I decided to risk it since it was John's own request.

Accordingly, he was re-registered on February 3, 1944, as a third term commercial art student carrying a full vocational high school program. I had him assigned to my own class for social studies so that I could observe him each day in the classroom. Then began a great transformation. Each day he seemed to regain more composure and self-assurance. Each day he told me that going to school was easy. Each day he seemed to lose more and more of his fear of school. By the end of his first month John was well on the road to proper school adjustment. By the end of two months he began to show an interest in extracurricular activities. By the end of the term, John was no longer a "problem" case. In June, 1944, he passed all subjects with an average of 85% and had become convinced that he had the makings of a successful commercial artist.

He continued to make great strides in the fourth term and managed to achieve a "commercial art" grade of 95% for this semester. His teacher spoke highly of his ability and future possibilities.

THREAT. Then came a threat to John's well-being in the form of a Board of Education order that we transfer all of our fifth term students to the New York School of Industrial Art. This naturally affected John who was about to be promoted to the fifth term. Almost at once his fears reappeared. His anxiety grew. He rushed to Dr. Abbate for help and assistance.

Under the date of January 19, 1945, Dr. Abbate wrote me in part as follows:

Dear Mr. Wexler:

"As you know, John has been under psychiatric treatment at the Bureau since March, 1943. He responded well to treatment, and in February, 1944, he was able to return to school, where he took the Commercial Art Course which you arranged for him. It is because of the danger of disturbing this adjustment that I am urging that he remain in Woodrow Wilson. You have done an excellent job with him. He feels secure and well-accepted in the school, and for the first time in his life is part of a social group that accepts him as an equal."

We recognized the dangerous implication of this wholesale transfer to John and other students affected and we appealed for a change in the policy governing these wholesale transfers. Before the term

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ended the ruling was changed and the boys were allowed to complete their course at Woodrow Wilson.

SUCCESS. At the present writing, John is already a 7th term student. He has made a remarkable adjustment both in school and at home. He is well-accepted by his classmates and has made a splendid record for himself. His attendance, punctuality, and citizenship record are very good, and his scholarship record remains above 80 per cent. By now Dr. Abbate advises me that he no longer needs any psychiatric treatment. He still reports to her once in a while but merely for the sake of maintaining this contact.

In January, 1947, John will graduate and we feel certain that he will go ahead to a normal, happy, and useful life. "Salvaged—One Life!"

FRANK WEXLER Woodrow Wilson Vocational High School

CONFLICTS IN THE SOCIO-MORAL ASPECTS OF EDUCATION

We are living in an age of transition and every age of transition is a period of social crisis in the history of civilization, a period of conflict between the ideology which is being discredited and the ideology which is struggling for acceptance. The transition today is no worse than the transitions in the past, the conflict is no greater; but both are more significant. Previously the knowledge of these chaotic and anarchic eras was limited to the select few, to the philosophers who analyzed social movements to their basic and fundamental entities. Now with the tremendous extension of communication devices, the radio, motion pictures, and picture magazines, the masses have been informed if not enlightened; they have been aroused if not educated; and they have been made aware that with the possibility of living in the best of all possible worlds potential, actually we live in the worst of all possible worlds. Now let us examine three of the causes of conflict in the socio-moral aspects of education in our modern civilization.

I. DEMOCRACY AND EDUCATION. The establishment of education in America is almost synchronous with the foundation of Democracy. Democracy in America is said to have had its birth in the Plymouth Colony about 1620. In 1635 when a generation of

children was growing up, it was realized that the second generation would not lay down its life for the principles the first generation had left home and kin to establish. Furthermore, during the 15 years of experiment with the democratic thesis, the concept of individual differences was emphasized in a real way to the founding fathers. Whereas in a democratic society every individual democrat has the right, the privilege, the responsibility to participate actively and continually in the government of his group, every individual democrat does not have the ability rightly and properly to discharge his privileges and responsibilities. Hence in 1635 education was begun in America to make men good Christians and incidentally good democrats. Education was to be the great leveler. Although it was granted that men differed naturally, it was assumed that the differences could be leveled off by an educational process which inculcated the Christian ethic and ideals.

This fundamental purpose of education has long been lost sight of. It has deteriorated to an inscription on the school building to the effect that "Education is the cornerstone of Democracy." The educational process was originally designed to train men to think, to think about the government of their group, to think of the best ways of discovering the truth about men, movements of social groups, and affairs of government, and to plan the best ways of communicating these discoveries to other members of the democratic community in an impartial, unbiased way.

How far we have moved from this original position is the tragic tale of modern civilization. The teachers of America have been so crushed by the political segment of the present democratic way of life that the social, economic, and other segments of the democratic way of life can hardly be achieved.

II. THE CONCEPT OF CHANGE. The philosophical concept is different from the practical realization. The ideal is never the real. The man in the street is not averse to change, but he is, and should be, averse to change for the sake of change, or change to avoid the catastrophic outcomes of the previous change which did not turn out practically as philosophically it was supposed to.

Again, when change is proposed, we must ask, change from what to what? Too many of the changes in the recent past have been changes in the superficial superstructure, when a change in the fundamental basis of the thing to be changed was exigent. There

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is in social life today too much pruning at the branches and not enought attacking roots of the noxious growths that contaminate civilization.

Finally the concept of change is a continuum. *Panta rei.* Where is your stability? Progress seems to have been made in the past when men stayed with one idea long enough to master it to know definitely that it was good or bad. "Finish one picture and you will be a painter," said Joshua Reynolds to an apprentice who was continually changing from one picture to another. "I have a thousand inventions in my head," said Edison, "but I am going to finish the one I am working at now, because if I change from my present idea to a better idea, I will get an idea better than that. I will always be changing and never accomplishing."

Education should be dynamic, but it should be static long enough also to accomplish something.

III. AUTHORITY AND DEMOCRACY. We are being inoculated daily with a vaccine that will keep us immune from totalitarian plagues, fascism, nazism, and communism. What a nation ours would be if we could be nourished by democratic milk and honey instead of crawling between earth and heaven for lack of the nourishment that would give us the stamina to work with the antibodies that run in our veins to the ultimate confusion of those who would destroy us.

I have said before that one of the serious lacks of education is its failure to teach people to think, to weigh, to judge, to discriminate. I am told that the Oriental can hold several diverse, antithetical, contradictory ideas in his mind at one and the same time and maintain a nice balance of good judgment among them. We are told on good psychological authority that the fundamental stuff of the mind is not predisposed to development only within circumscribed limits. With a fresh mind you can do practically anything; but you usually get a mind which is a product of its culture. If this is so, and the Orientals can train their minds to make subtle distinctions between contradictory, antithetical, and diverse points of view, then the American mind can similarly be trained.

Instead of investigating the possibilities of such a training, the teachers of America, while subscribing to the democratic idea in a general way, have subscribed to an authoritarian way of life in the specific situations of everyday life. In this way they have been

imitated by the political demagogues. The democratic way of life is difficult, and its working may be frustrated in numerous ways. The authoritarian way of life is simple, and may only with difficulty be frustrated once it is firmly entrenched. Furthermore, when it is maintained by a professedly democratic society, it is probably more firmly grounded than the Rock of Gibraltar. The children of political darkness are in their generation wiser than the children of the sunlight of education. Those acknowledge this phenomenon; while these attempt to explain it away. Those put it into operation; these give courses about it.

A CHALLENGE TO EDUCATION. It has come to be accepted in America that the masses of men cannot think, and that a leader who can think for them is entitled to their followership. Whether this is true or not, it is a convenient idea to keep in circulation, at least for demagogues. And if these leaders, who are the moral guardians of the social welfare, do not lead better, well, they do not lead better because they were so poorly trained to lead according to the standards of justice, virtue, and rectitude. They are leaders who need leading as the educators who trained them need educating. The kind and quality of courses which make up the educational system are some of the reasons why education in America is and will be formal and artificial. Assembly-belt education seems to be turning out teaching-machines which in operation imitate by a kind of recapitulation the history of their training.

What I have written is a challenge to American education. There is, however, as there should be, a difference between a challenge to an institution and a discrediting of an institution.

DAVID T. ARMSTRONG Murray Hill Vocational High School

MEETING THE EMERGENCY

Once again it has been demonstrated that the schools are closely associated with the homes of the nation. In response to the urgent plea of President Truman to warn every individual in the nation of the impending danger of famine and disease in the war-torn areas and the need of immediate shipment of food the Junior Red Cross, as the service organization of the schools, has been active in the distribution of check-lists to the students.

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Through the cooperation of teachers and school authorities this has become one of the most worth-while projects of the year. Not only was the tremendous task of distribution accomplished quickly, but it has called forth a patriotic effort on the part of every student to encourage the saving of food in the home.

Existing conditions which brought about the emergency have been discussed in social studies. The effects of low calorie and protein deficiency diets on the human body and the aftermath of slow starvation have received the special attention of biology and health students.

In laboratories the home economics students have been testing the recipes for the new 80% extraction flour and many will continue to demonstrate their skill at home. In the school lunchrooms and cafeterias posters and placards designed and drafted by art students illustrate ways to "feed the family well while saving for others." Tray serving kits sent out by Nutrition Service of the American Red Cross are proving to be very effective in developing individual responsibility in choosing the proper kind of a school lunch.

Speech students have prepared timely topics for assembly programs and have given talks at special luncheons at which demonstrations of well balanced, low calorie menus were given.

Junior Red Cross Councils have been coordinating the program. Thus to the homes, by the students, through the teachers, it has been possible to distribute literature and carry information. But unless this material is read, discussed and used it will be of little value. To you, the teacher, is given the responsibility; it is upon you its success will depend.

RUTH A. DODGE — Research Assistant Junior Red Cross
North Atlantic Area

THE MAGE: AN INDEX OF PUPIL CAPACITY

Fresh from the educational mint comes a new medium of exchange—the *Mage*. Its use may create a bullish market in pedagogical thinking and planning. *Mage* is a coined word, made from the initial letters in *M*ental *A*ge *G*rade *E*quivalent. Thinking in terms of mental ages is essential in these days of continuous progress, individualized instruction, and remedical teaching.

Ten-year old John Z., I.Q. 85, makes a grade score of 3.5 in a

standardized arithmetic test. But John is in the third month of the fifth school year (grade 5.3). His teacher is worried.

"True," she says, "John is somewhat below average in intelligence, but he applies himself to his studies and should have made a fifth-year score, or at least a fourth-year score."

She plans to have him give up his periods in music and art and devote the additional time to practice in arithmetic.

Needless worry and futile planning. John's Mage, according to the table of Mages, is 3.5. That is, his mental age, converted to a grade equivalent, is exactly 3.5—the same score he made on the standardized arithmetic test.

DOING HIS BEST. Teacher, John is working up to capacity, and isn't that the most we should expect of him? Even if his test score were only 3.3 or 3.2 you should not be disturbed. If it isn't more than two or three months below his Mage it is reasonable to say that he is achieving at or near his capacity. We must allow for errors in measurement of mental age and of achievement, since tests and test administration are not perfect.

It is possible that by stressing arithmetic and neglecting music and art John's score would be raised. Pressure procedures, however, may be harmful to his personality and social development. These are equally important objectives for the education of the "whole child." But pressure is to be distinguished from stimulation and challenge. The superior child, working below capacity, may well be encouraged and challenged to do better.

NEEDS HELP. Take the case of Rose C., eleven and a half years old. Rose's I.Q. was 130. She was in the seventh month of the sixth school year (grade 6.7). Her grade score on a standardized arithmetic test was 6.9. Certainly, she was up to her grade in accomplishment. Some teachers would have let well enough alone. Not Rose's teacher.

Said her teacher: "She's a superior child. I don't see why we should get mediocre accomplishment from her. Isn't it a crime to neglect those who can be our future leaders?"

The Table of Mages was consulted. Rose's Mage was 10. She had the capacity of an average child in the second year at high school! Some detective work on the part of the teacher disclosed

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that Rose still clung to counting on her fingers, that she was hazy in her arithmetic tables.

During a teacher-pupil conference Rose learned that she could do better. She was given two jobs—both pleased her. The first was to assist the teacher handling the school's war bond purchases; the second, to tutor a child in the fourth year who didn't know her tables —Rose's weakness. You know the answer. Her score zoomed.

We spoke a moment ago of the fact that Rose could do the work of a high school pupil. Capacity is one thing; accomplishment, another. The job of education is to boost accomplishment to capacity. But would it not be a little too much to expect Rose to accomplish high school work while her time is spent on an elementary school curriculum?

CONTINUOUS PROGRESS. The continuous progress policy, followed by the New York City Schools, might provide the answer. The core of this policy is that children advance from grade to grade according to their chronological ages. But each child is taught at that level of growth at which the teacher finds him. Frank, at six, is in the first year; at seven, in the second year; at eight, in the third year, and so on, regardless of how poorly or well he does the work of each year. But if Frank, in the third year, is only a first-year reader, his teacher will attempt to lead him into second-year reading ability. And if Stanley, in the third year, is a fourth-year reader, his teacher will attempt to develop fifth-year reading ability. So that, conceivably, Rose C. might be taught high school work while still in the sixth year.

Each child is treated as an individual. How important it is, then, to know just what to expect of each child! Why push and press and cajole and coax, and spend time and effort on children who are giving us the most we can expect of them? How much better to let these children know that they are succeeding, and to devote the time and effort saved to those who are not working up to capacity. The Table of Mages is handy here. It tells at a glance what each pupil is capable of doing—and in terms familiar to the teacher.

If, at the beginning of the fifth year, Anne scores third year in a test, don't rush to teach her from there. You may feed her too much. Consult the Table of Mages. See what she is capable of doing. And then, if necessary, plan your diagnostic and remedial work.

Mage is a new word—the invention of the authors. The concept, however, is not new. For years good teachers have been comparing the achievement ages of children, as revealed by tests, with their mental ages. The most recent curriculum bulletin of the New York City Board of Education, *Curriculum Development in the Elementary Schools* urges teachers to do so.

Lucille's reading age is nine and one half years. Her mental age is eleven. She is therefore working one and one-half years below her capacity. Converting nine and one-half years to a grade equivalent, we find Lucille doing no better than average children in the fourth school year, fifth month, or 4.5.

The catch in this illustration, however, is that the teacher must begin her calculations by computing mental age, which is the product of I.Q. and chronological age. (Record cards, if they show them at all, show M.A.'s only for the day of testing.) Calculations take time. It is small wonder that teachers become annoyed after doing half a dozen.

A HELPFUL DEVICE. The Mage solves the problem. Teacher, take out John's record card. Note his I.Q. and his age, and look for the corresponding lines on the table on the following page. You'll find his Mage where these lines meet.

Don't wait until standardized tests are given to obtain the Mages of your children. Get these figures at the beginning of their year with you. Of course, the I.Q.'s on their record cards give you some indication of what to expect of them. But how much more striking to find that a child in your sixth year class has a Mage of 3.2—and is capable of doing only third year work! Or that the child sitting next to him has a Mage of 9.4—ninth-year capacity. Our understanding of children is aided by our knowledge of their capacities, and our work of planning, grouping, and teaching is made easier and more effective.

LIMITATION. In using the table of Mages, the teacher or supervisor should recognize that errors of measurement of mental ability or of achievement will require caution against a too-literal interpretation of a Mage. The mental age, derived from an intelligence test, and the grade equivalent, derived from an achievement test, may have errors of measurement. If these errors are in opposite directions, the resulting correspondence between mental age

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or IQ and grade equivalent will be large. Careful observation, therefore, is required for pupils who deviate widely from the expected grade equivalent. Certainly, it is reasonable to assume that if a pupil does not deviate more than two or three months from his expectancy in grade equivalents, he is achieving at or near his capacity. If the deviation is larger, two courses of action should be followed. First, special study and observation of the pupil should be undertaken to determine his status and needs. Second, in case of doubt, an additional test of intelligence and of achievement should be administered to ascertain a more accurate index.

EXPLANATION AND INSTRUCTIONS FOR USE

The measure of a pupil's capacity at a particular time is his mental age at that time. If this mental age is converted into a grade equivalent, we have a measure of his expectancy. A good word to use for this measure of expectancy is MAGE (*M*ental *A*ge *G*rade *E*quivalent).

Illustrative Problems

Question 1: A pupil's I.Q. is 110. His chronological age is 7 years, 9 months. Find his Mage.

Answer 1: Find I.Q. column 110. Look down this column until the 7-9 line is reached. The Mage is 3.5.

Question 2: A pupil's I.Q. is 122. His chronological age is 8 years, 1 month. Find his Mage.

Answer 2: Find the column nearest I.Q. 122. It is column 120. Look down this column until the line nearest 8-1 is reached. This line is 8-0. The pupil's Mage is 4.6.

How to Use the Mage

Theoretically the grade equivalent made by a pupil on a test should be the same as his Mage. If the grade equivalent is below his Mage, he is not working up to capacity. While attention should be paid to all whose grade equivalents fall below the Mage, special remedial procedures should be followed with those whose grade equivalents fall *one year or more* below their Mages.

Rule of Thumb

The table has been prepared to save time. The Mages have been obtained mathematically. In the event, however, that the Table of Mages is inaccessible, a good rule of thumb to use for finding a Mage is to multiply the I.Q. by the chronological age and subtract 5. A workable answer will be obtained.

Example: C.A. equals 6 years, 3 months; I.Q. equals 110; M.A. equals 6.8; subtract 5; Mage is 1.8.

TABLE OF MAGES

C.A.	*Intelligence Quotient* 80	85	90	95	100	105	110	115	120	125	130	135
6-0					1.0	1.3	1.6	1.9	2.2	2.5	2.8	3.1
6-3					1.3	1.6	1.9	2.2	2.5	2.8	3.2	3.4
6-6				1.2	1.5	1.8	2.2	2.5	2.8	3.2	3.4	3.8
6-9			1.1	1.4	1.8	2.1	2.4	2.8	3.1	3.4	3.8	4.1
7-0			1.3	1.7	2.0	2.3	2.7	3.1	3.4	3.8	4.1	4.4
7-3		1.2	1.5	1.9	2.3	2.6	3.0	3.3	3.7	4.1	4.4	4.8
7-6	1.0	1.4	1.8	2.2	2.5	2.9	3.3	3.7	4.0	4.4	4.8	5.2
7-9	1.2	1.6	2.0	2.3	2.8	3.2	3.5	3.9	4.3	4.8	5.1	5.5
8-0	1.4	1.8	2.2	2.6	3.0	3.4	3.8	4.2	4.6	5.0	5.4	5.8
8-3	1.6	2.0	2.4	2.8	3.3	3.7	4.1	4.5	4.9	5.3	5.8	6.2
8-6	1.8	2.3	2.7	3.1	3.5	3.9	4.3	4.8	5.2	5.7	6.1	6.5
8-9	2.0	2.4	2.9	3.3	3.8	4.2	4.7	5.1	5.5	5.9	6.4	6.8
9-0	2.2	2.7	3.1	3.6	4.0	4.4	4.9	5.3	5.8	6.3	6.7	7.2
9-3	2.4	2.8	3.3	3.8	4.3	4.8	5.2	5.7	6.1	6.6	7.0	7.5
9-6	2.6	3.1	3.6	4.0	4.5	5.0	5.4	5.9	6.4	6.9	7.3	7.8
9-9	2.8	3.3	3.8	4.3	4.8	5.3	5.8	6.3	6.7	7.2	7.7	8.2
10-0	3.0	3.5	4.0	4.5	5.0	5.5	6.0	6.5	7.0	7.5	8.0	8.5
10-3	3.2	3.8	4.3	4.8	5.3	5.8	6.3	6.8	7.3	7.8	8.3	8.8
10-6	3.4	3.9	4.4	5.0	5.5	6.0	6.6	7.1	7.6	8.2	8.7	9.2
10-9	3.6	4.2	4.7	5.3	5.8	6.3	6.8	7.3	7.9	8.4	9.0	9.5
11-0	3.8	4.3	4.9	5.4	6.0	6.6	7.1	7.6	8.2	8.8	9.4	9.8
11-3	4.0	4.6	5.2	5.7	6.3	6.8	7.4	7.9	8.5	9.1	9.7	10.2
11-6	4.2	4.8	5.3	5.9	6.5	7.1	7.7	8.3	8.8	9.4	9.9	10.5
11-9	4.4	4.9	5.6	6.2	6.8	7.3	7.9	8.5	9.1	9.7	10.3	10.8
12-0	4.6	5.2	5.8	6.4	7.0	7.6	8.2	8.8	9.4	10.0	10.6	11.2
12-3	4.8	5.4	6.0	6.7	7.3	7.8	8.5	9.1	9.7	10.3	10.9	11.5
12-6	5.0	5.7	6.3	6.9	7.5	8.2	8.8	9.4	10.0	10.7	11.3	11.9
12-9	5.2	5.8	6.5	7.1	7.8	8.4	9.0	9.7	10.3	10.9	11.6	12.3
13-0	5.4	6.1	6.7	7.3	8.0	8.7	9.3	9.9	10.6	11.3	11.9	12.6
13-3	5.6	6.3	6.9	7.6	8.3	8.9	9.6	10.3	10.9	11.6	12.3	12.9
13-6	5.8	6.5	7.2	7.8	8.5	9.2	9.9	10.5	11.2	11.9	12.6	13+
13-9	6.0	6.7	7.4	8.1	8.8	9.4	10.2	10.8	11.5	12.2	12.9	13+
14-0	6.2	6.9	7.6	8.3	9.0	9.7	10.4	11.1	11.8	12.5	13+	13+
14-3	6.4	7.1	7.8	8.5	9.3	10.0	10.7	11.4	12.1	12.8	13+	13+
14-6	6.6	7.3	8.0	8.8	9.5	10.3	10.9	11.7	12.3	13+	13+	13+
14-9	6.8	7.5	8.3	9.0	9.8	10.5	11.3	12.0	12.7	13+	13+	13+
15-0	7.0	7.8	8.5	9.3	10.0	10.8	11.5	12.3	13+	13+	13+	13+

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ON PROCEDURE IN SLOW OR GENERAL CLASSES IN SOCIAL SCIENCE

With the realization of the American ideal of universal education in New York City, there arises the problem of what to do with the students who cannot read well, think clearly, make generalizations, and whose field of experience is strikingly meager. The answer of educators is special classes for such students.

What is to set off such classes from other classes? The writer's answer was new courses. Thus new courses of study were drawn up in history and economics with focal points of interest suitable for slow students. When slow classes were visited it was found even with the new courses of study that something was lacking. After a little mulling over of the problem, we decided that the old methodology was the source of the trouble, for it nullified the salutary effects of the new courses of study. Then, the following set of directions was worked out for the use of the teachers in slow classes. All teachers can profitably use the suggestions for the slower students in normal classes, too.

Direction to Teachers of Slow Classes in Social Science

The spirit in which all *G* (slow) students are to be taught should be one of helpfulness, understanding and sympathy. A *G* class must not be looked on as an affliction, although it may be more difficult to teach than a normal class; rather it must be looked on as a field for social service.

I. *Preparation for teaching*

The teacher should ascertain at the beginning of the term the intelligence quotient and reading grade of every student and if possible his emotional make-up and home background.

II. *The teaching process*

A. The teachers should establish an informal atmosphere in the classroom. The teacher should always strive to be pleasant and should speak slowly, setting up a relatively slow tempo for recitation periods.

B. Routine. *G* students are confused by vague, uncertain or varying conditions of classroom management. Books, dictionaries, maps, chalk must be placed in the same place daily. Directions must be exact and definite.

C. Assignment. A careful organized assignment with exact pages and copious explanations will be helpful.

D. Methods used.

1. Varied teaching procedures should be used to interest slow students in the subject matter.

2. The period should be broken up so that there is a change in the procedure every ten or fifteen minutes. One may have a written quiz, a class recitation, board work, one after the other.

3. Let students get up to recite. Use history bees, like spelling bees, to get physical activity.

4. Overviews may well be given by the teacher at the beginning of units.

5. Small projects may be set up.

6. Plenty of drilling and repetition, but in varied fashion, should be given.

7. Questions should be short and specific.

8. Brighter students may act as monitors for slower students at the board—a bright student can write the answer, erase it then have the slower one write, and the brighter one correct it.

9. Competition between students in a *G* class with a common subject period will give zest to historical learning.

10. Student progress cards might well be used and his own score kept by each student.

11. Changing teachers of *G* classes where there is a common period will give *G* students an expert and a change from the usual —thus an economics teacher can give all *G* classes a lesson on banking; a history teacher can give all *G* classes a lesson on political reforms.

12. Summaries will knit the lessons together for *G* students.

13. *G* students like many short tests, because they like marks. Let them be given marks and marks and praise for progress.

14. A sense of satisfaction and accomplishment should be felt by the student. A student must feel the usefulness and importance of his work in everyday life.

15. Above all the teaching must be individualized. Conferences with students after tests, development of *all* students through recitations, individual projects—all will bring about individualization.

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III. *Materials used*

a. Visual and audial material should be utilized: cartoons, charts, maps and films; phonograph records and radio broadcasts.

b. Newspapers for motivation and magazines as well as books should be used.

c. The library should be used frequently by slow students.

It must be remembered that *G* students, too, will be voters and as such must acquire a knowledge of the processes of the government a desire to participate in it, and sufficient critical-mindedness to make a wise choice on election day when they come closest to activity in the government.

BESSIE STOLZENBERG

Seward Park High School

A SAMPLE STUDY OF HIGH SCHOOL INTELLIGENCE

Proverbial among all teachers is the saying, *"The calibre of our student body is deteriorating."* A natural inference drawn from this proposition is that usual syllabi cannot be covered and that novel experimental methods are a risk with the mediocre type of pupil under instruction.

That such reasoning may actually be fallacious in some cases is proved by the following study. Perhaps similar investigations would be worthwhile in other schools where similar claims are made.

Many teachers at the Abraham Lincoln High School felt that the scholarship of the students had declined in the past few years and perhaps this was due to a corresponding decrease in intelligence. Hence the writer decided to study the I. Q.'s of the student body to see if there had been any actual decline in average mental ability.

METHOD. An examination of the permanent records of all 4,300 Lincoln pupils during the Fall term of 1945 indicated that 1,561 of them had taken the Otis Self-Administering Tests at one time or another. Since there was nothing special about this set of 1,561 students, that is, since the group included academic and commercial students of both sexes, students from all terms and classes, etc., it was decided that it was random enough to furnish a fair sample of the entire school. That the sampling was truly random may be inferred from the similarity of means, medians, and interquartile ranges of independent samples of first, second, third, and fourth years pupils in the school.

NUMERICAL DATA. The detailed statistical facts are presented in Tables II, III, and IV. Table I is the summary drawn from all the data. To indicate average intelligence, the customary measures—*mean* and *median* were computed. Their close agreement in each case is one indication of the normality of the sample. To measure the variability of each group the *interquartile* range was used instead of the complete range, which is a statistical procedure for avoiding the effects of extremely low or extremely high scores. By this is meant that the lowest 25% as well as the highest 25% in a frequency distribution are disregarded and the range covers the remaining middle group.

Table I

SUMMARY OF NUMERICAL RESULTS

Group Measured	*Number of Cases*
Entire Sample	1561
1st Year	314
2nd Year	258
3rd Year	387
4th Year	602
All commercial cases in sample	436
All academic cases in sample	1125

Table II

FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF INTELLIGENCE OF ABRAHAM LINCOLN PUPILS BY YEARS

I. Q.	*1st Year*	*2nd Year*	*3rd Year*	*4th Year*	*Total*
71- 75	1	0	0	0	1
76- 80	1	0	2	3	6
81- 85	3	4	5	7	19
86- 90	8	11	14	27	60
91- 95	32	22	23	61	138
96-100	47	40	39	85	211
101-105	67	44	70	105	286
106-110	51	41	81	108	281
111-115	48	37	63	85	233
116-120	30	30	52	60	172
121-125	14	14	20	37	85
126-130	6	10	11	15	42
131-135	6	3	5	6	20
136-140	0	1	1	3	5
141-145	0	0	1	0	1
146-150	0	0	0	0	0
151-155	0	1	0	0	1
Total	314	258	387	602	1561

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Table III

NUMERICAL COMPARISON OF INTELLIGENCE OF ACADEMIC AND COMMERCIAL PUPILS

I. Q.	*Academic*	*Commercial*	*Total*
71- 75	1	0	1
76- 80	4	2	6
81- 85	7	12	19
86- 90	27	33	60
91- 95	68	70	138
96-100	129	82	211
101-105	202	84	286
106-110	207	74	281
111-115	193	40	233
116-120	147	25	172
121-125	75	10	85
126-130	38	4	42
131-135	20	0	20
136-140	5	0	5
141-145	1	0	1
146-150	0	0	0
151-155	1	0	1
Total	1125	436	1561

Table IV

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF INTELLIGENCE OF LINCOLN PUPILS BY YEARS

I. Q.	*1st Year*	*2nd Year*	*3rd Year*	*4th Year*	*Total*
71- 75	0.3	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1
76- 80	0.3	0.0	0.5	0.5	0.4
81- 85	1.0	1.6	1.3	1.2	1.2
86- 90	2.5	4.3	3.6	4.5	3.9
91- 95	10.2	8.5	5.9	10.1	8.8
96-100	15.0	15.5	10.1	14.1	13.5
101-105	21.3	17.1	18.1	17.4	18.3
106-110	16.2	15.9	21.0	17.9	18.0
111-115	15.3	14.3	16.3	14.1	14.9
116-120	10.0	11.6	13.4	10.0	11.0
121-125	4.5	5.4	5.2	6.1	5.4
126-130	1.9	3.9	2.8	2.5	2.7
131-135	1.9	1.2	1.3	1.0	1.3
136-140	0.0	0.4	0.3	0.5	0.3
141-145	0.0	0.0	0.3	0.0	0.1
146-150	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
151-155	0.0	0.4	0.0	0.0	0.1

CONCLUSION. A comparison of the data by years indicates that the average mental capacity is almost identical. Hence, it would be very inaccurate to claim that the type of student in the last few years has changed.

Comparison between academic and commercial pupils indicates a decided superiority in intelligence for the academic group. (See Tables I and III.)

Other numerical differences which the figures might appear to show—e.g., the highest average intelligence of the third year group —may be attributed to the fact that samples were used instead of total population.

If one considers an I. Q. below 90 as below average mental capacity, then the figures indicate that there are very few such Lincoln students. Approximately 5.5% of the entire school (3.5% of the academic students and 10.8% of the commercials) are below average by this standard, that is, there are roughly 110 academic and 130 commercial pupils below average in intelligence.

If the scholarship has declined, one cannot justly attribute it to lowered student mental capacity, but must seek the cause elsewhere. In this particular study no attempt has been made to find the cause but perhaps one might consider

1. The war—the resulting strain in the home atmosphere, worry about brothers, fathers, etc., in the service.
2. After school employment. More students work after school, weekends, etc., this too because during the war years employment was easily obtainable. Hence, little time was available for study.
3. The wholesale promotions in the elementary schools. Pupils get the idea that they will be promoted whether they study or not, and thus fail to acquire proper habits of study.
4. Overemphasis on extracurricular activities.
5. Other outside interests.

A decline in scholarship has been a persistent claim of teachers. Past and present high school teachers may need to appraise critically their instructional practices and to gather objective evidence to support their claims of declining scholarship.

I. BENEDICT LASSAR Abraham Lincoln High School

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Books

The Measurement of Understanding. National Society for the Study of Education, Forty-Fifth Yearbook, Part I. University of Chicago Press, Chicago, Ill., 1946. $2.25 paper cover; $3.00 cloth cover.

Under the sponsorship of the National Society for the Study of Education, a committee, of which Dr. William Brownell was chairman, prepared a volume suggesting techniques for the measurement of "understanding" and "meaning" in subjects of the curriculum. The emphasis throughout is upon the measurement of meaningful outcomes of learning, contrasted with the more common methods of measuring skills and factual information. Because it pioneers into the realms of evaluating such objectives as the interpretation of data and the application of principles, as well as stressing tests of growth in thinking, this volume contributes something new to the abundant literature on measurement.

The yearbook is generously illustrated by sample test exercises appropriately designed and adapted to the requirements of different subjects of instruction. In Section I, experts Brownell, Sims, Spitzer, Findley and Scates provide an introduction on theoretical considerations in measurement of understanding. In Section II, the practical illustrations of test exercises and their application and interpretation are presented for social studies, science, mathematics, language, arts, fine arts, health, physical education, home economics, technical education and industrial arts. Generally one chapter is devoted to each subject. The format followed in each chapter is to enumerate the objectives related to understanding for the subject and to provide illustrative test exercises to measure growth in each objective. The techniques of measurement include not only pencil-and-paper tests but also observational and performance methods for collecting evaluation data.

In social studies, for example, the objectives for understanding are enumerated as "acquiring functional information," "analyzing social problems," and "practicing desirable social relationships." Then follows a wealth of sample exercises showing techniques for the measurement of these objectives. These are simple source materials for the alert teacher who wishes to construct his own test exercises or to obtain some of the more recently devised but less well-known published tests. In science, likewise, such objectives as "formulating hypotheses," "interpreting data," "making inferences," and "applying scientific principles to new situations" are defined and methods of measuring pupil growth in each are suggested in illustrative exercises. The objectives in other subjects are similarly defined, and methods of measurement are suggested. The quality of suggestions varies for the chapters, but those for social studies, science, mathematics, and industrial arts are especially meritorious.

The committee preparing this yearbook is to be commended for the comprehensive, systematic, and yet simple manner in which they have brought together and presented the techniques for the measurement of objectives related to understanding and thinking in the various subject areas. The volume points the way to a responsibility that all schools share to emphasize and to implement in instruction and in evaluation real understanding and thinking rather than the mere acquisition of information and skills. Teachers and

supervisors are still prone to pay lip-service to the objectives of understanding and thinking. Admittedly, instruction and evaluation of these objectives are difficult. Here is an educational document that will be of practical help to the teacher and supervisor in planning more intelligently how to assess and to guide pupil growth in the understandings of subject areas. This book is the first, most recent, and most usable but not the final statement on this important topic. The challenge is to move forward in emphasizing understanding and thinking as objectives of the curriculum. Every teacher and supervisor can read this book with profit—read it critically and thoughtfully —then select and apply suggestions that are appropriate to his teaching situation.

J. WAYNE WRIGHTSTONE

The Roots of American Loyalty. By Merle Curti, Columbia University Press: 1946; 267 pages; $3.00.

The study of patriotism is of special interest to teachers because its inculcation has been the aim of educators from Revolutionary days to the present. Until the disillusionment which followed World War I seeped into the school system, children were taught an uncritical acceptance of American institutions in the tradition of "Peter Parley" and William H. McGuffey. In the period between World Wars, the other extreme, characterized by the debunking of American heroes, was widely adopted. Today, there is a growing realization that some middle ground must be sought, and that the narrow patriotism which stops at the borders of our country must be expanded to include an appreciation of mankind the world over.

Shortly before Europe was engulfed by Nazism, Professor Curti, addressing a teachers' association, called for a history of American patriotism. He has met this need at a time when teachers are undecided as to how best to interpret the American scene.

The roots of American loyalty were planted in the colonial period, and Dr. Curti has observed their growth to the present day when conflicting groups seek to label as one-hundred-percent American a particular solution of an American problem. This latter development is familiar to even the casual observer of the contemporary scene. It continues an old tradition in which private interests have been prone to associate personal gain with the public good.

Patriotism, defined simply by Professor Curti as "love of country, pride in it, and readiness to make sacrifices for what is considered its best interest," has been appealed to by merchants, industrialists, farmers, and workers throughout our history. When employers denounced as unpatriotic trade union organizations of the 1830's, workers countered with the argument that equal opportunity for sharing the benefits of America was the essence of Americanism. So it has been in war and peace. Immigrants were both attacked and defended on patriotic grounds; American wars have been urged and opposed by patriots; teachers and textbooks writers have been hounded in the name of patriotism. If we can learn anything from all this, it is to

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beware of the man who wraps himself in the American flag and claims the aura of one-hundred-percent Americanism.

Dr. Curti fully appreciates the lengths to which organizations have gone to gain for their cause the respectability and approval carried by patriotism. From the struggle for the rights of Englishmen to the campaigns of the National Association of Manufacturers, and from the heavy tomes of Cotton Mather to the succinct prose of Franklin D. Roosevelt, Professor Curti has extracted the pith of patriotism.

He has not contented himself with the usual tools and materials of the historian. But, in accordance with precepts applied in his Pulitzer prize winning *The Growth of American Thought*, and earlier works on peace, war, and the ideas of American educators, he has studied painting and sculpture as an instrument of patriotism, Fourth of July orations, sermons, soldiers' mail in all wars, letters of Nebraska pioneer women and pronouncements before the Phi Beta Kappa society. All have been read, digested, and presented in a book so perfectly organized and easily read that a book club would be doing the American people a service to assure it a wider audience.

The numerous quotations which introduce the nine chapters are pointed and frequently witty. One serious quotation which teachers would do well to ponder is a statement by a writer in 1912: "We Americans do indeed need iron in our blood, but it is iron that shall make us do our dull, plodding, tiresome duties day by day. This alone is the patriotism to be taught in schools: and unless these ideals of duty toward one's country are made vital in the school-life, the flag-salute, the singing, the national self-glorification will result in a nation of swashbucklers, not of patriots."

Dr. Curti has avoided invalid generalizations for the country as a whole by moving from New Hampshire to Georgia during the colonial period and from the East to West coast during later periods so as to gain the widest and deepest insight into patriotism as it was reflected in a variety of activities. He has sought for the most part to let the facts speak for themselves—and they do, eloquently.

The book is the first comprehensive history of American patriotism. A glance at the index, footnotes, and critical bibliography will indicate the enormous coverage. That so much has been so skillfully and entertainingly woven into a meaningful pattern is an indication that one of America's great social historians has again contributed to an understanding of the American way of life.

HOWARD L. HURWITZ

Latin-American Civilization, Colonial Period. By Bailey W. Diffie. Stackpole Sons, Harrisburg, Pa., 1945.

The past few years have witnessed a great reorientation of our curriculum in favor of Latin America. Yet, when the American Council on Education* recently surveyed the teaching materials available, they found that the colonial period of Latin-American history was in general inaccessible to American students. One phase alone was treated with any quantitative adequacy—that of exploration and discovery.

The Council reported that books from the elementary to the college levels have in the past left a gap (sometimes filled with a few generalizations) between the conquest and the wars of independence. If we consider that their colonial period was about twice as long as our own, and that it is a background for the understanding of all the Americas, we realize how important it is for us to know more than a few generalizations.

If Professor Diffie had deliberately set out in his book, which takes the story up to 1810, to give us a work which did not suffer from the many shortcomings which the Council found characteristic of the existing books in this field, he could hardly have done a better job. While intended primarily as a college text, this volume will serve admirably as a reference book for high school students, and teachers will find it a stimulating guide to Latin American backgrounds. Perhaps one of its primary values lies in its capacity to make us aware of how inaccurate are some of the generalizations about Latin-American history that our textbooks perpetuate. Painstaking research and convincing documentation help to shatter many widely held misconceptions.

One such is the notion, which we all were probably raised on, that the early Spaniards in America were nothing but a "gold-rush rabble" without any interest in colonization. The fact is that *"the Spaniard and the Portuguese (as well as the English) came mainly as farmers, artisans, and tradesmen. They came to settle, to find new homes, and build new towns. And most of them engaged in such activity."*

Nor is there much more truth in the picture of the Spaniards spreading only misery and destruction amongst the Indians who knew only peace, plenty, and justice. The author does not whitewash the familiar, but often exaggerated in our textbooks, story of Spanish misgovernment and exploitation. But he does deal harshly with the "Noble Redman" myth, pointing out that the pre-conquest Indian (this includes the Aztecs and, to a somewhat lesser degree, the Incas) lived in a society in which the masses were painfully familiar with grinding poverty through class exploitation and constant food shortages, wars of enslavement and extermination, and barbarous religious practices under a most powerful priesthood. Even in the realm of morals the "corruption" of the Indians by Europeans emerges as a doubtful thesis.

Lest the impression be created here that Professor Diffie has written an apologia for the Spanish, it must be made clear that he describes in great detail the shocking corruption that characterized both state and church in the colonial period. What, for example, he has to say at length about the Inquisition and the suppression of freedom in the Spanish colonies will set at rest any doubts about his essential liberalism. But he is making a courageous attempt to erase what scholars have come to call *la leyenda negra*, by which they mean the collection of historical falsehoods which originated in the Anglo-Saxon anti-Catholic milieu of the 16th century. In one connec-

* Latin America in School and College Teaching Materials—American Council on Education, 1944.

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tion, Professor Diffie makes the point this way: *"In some strange way, the production of gold and silver by the Spaniards has been made a peculiarly heinous crime, while the buccaneers who robbed them have been elevated into the ranks of heroes."*

One of the most interesting aspects of the book is the attention given to the blending of European, Indian and Negro cultures throughout the colonial period. Professor Diffie makes this theme very exciting by pointing out amazing similarities between Indian and Spanish (European) cultural patterns in such diverse fields as social stratification, labor systems, land holding, governmental institutions, and religion.

As the story unfolds in these pages, it becomes increasingly clear that in no phase of colonial life is the prevalent idea true that the centuries between conquest and independence were marked by stagnation and decay. In successive chapters, Professor Diffie shows marked development and activity in agriculture, mining, manufacturing, trade, education, and the arts. It is especially interesting how cultural and scientific fermentation occurred in the 18th century in spite of the censorship of church and state.

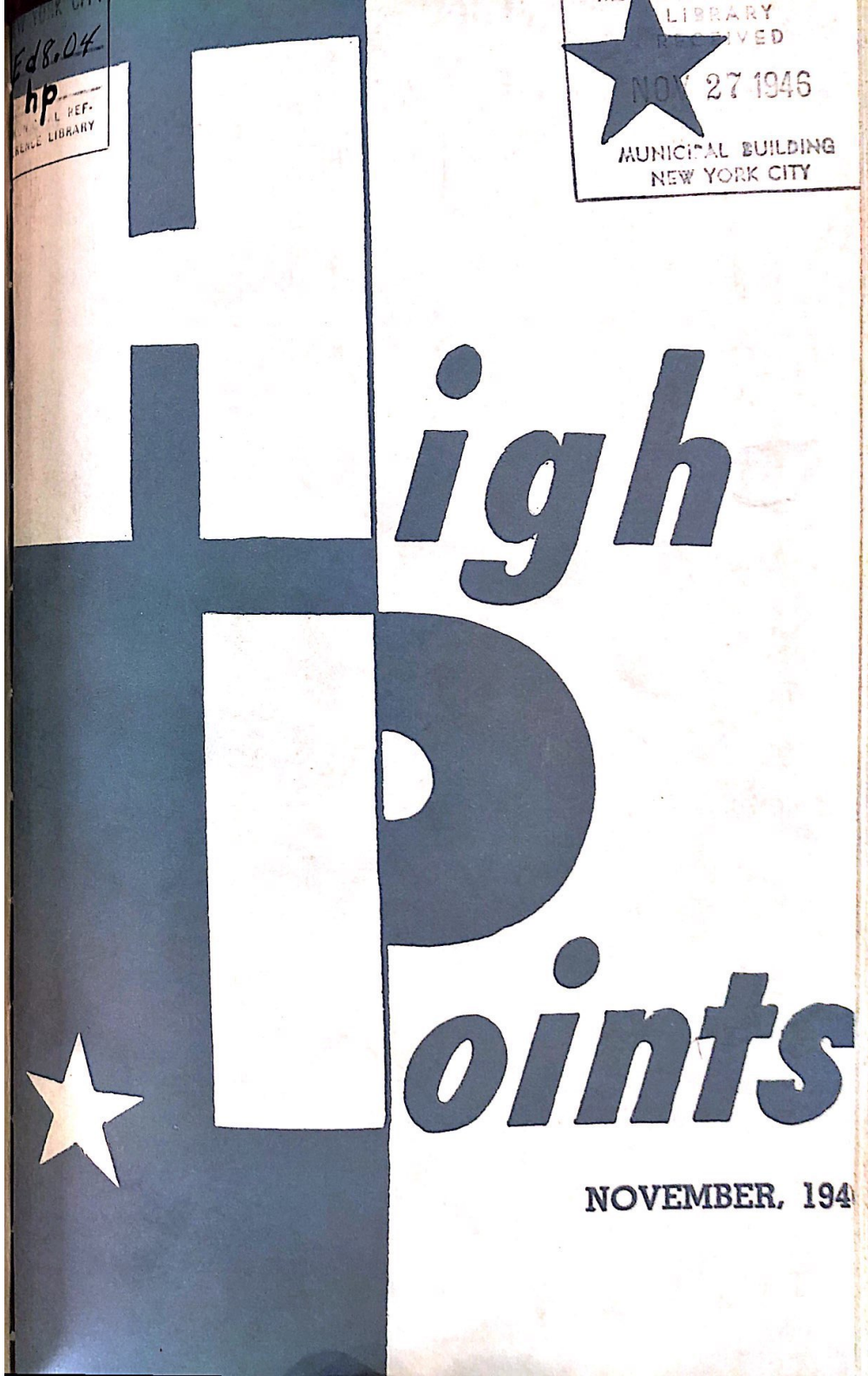
The general plan of the book is to deal with the Spanish colonies as a group, integrating their development in a topical treatment. However, Portuguese Brazil is dealt with separately. Grateful mention must be made of the interesting illustrations, clear maps, and excellent bibliography and index.

SAMUEL H. HALPERIN

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The Common Schools—Foundation of World Peace*

JOHN E. WADE, Superintendent of Schools

It was gracious of you to invite me to speak here today on behalf of the common schools, elementary and secondary, of the State of New York.

I represent a school system which is large and complex because of the factor of geographical location and the consequent financial resources available for the support of its varied activities. We are proud, as the school district of the City of New York, to take our place with the school districts of lesser size, but of equal worth, in the educational endeavor, which from the time of the adoption of the State Constitution, has been cherished and strengthened by our people. When the founders of our State determined on "the maintenance and support of a system of free common schools wherein all the children of this State may be educated," they spoke with vision and acted with courage. The establishment of the common school was a transition from the concept of education for the few to education for the many. It was a change in emphasis from aristocratic to democratic education.

WHAT ROLE? We must now ask ourselves, in the disturbed times in which we presently live, what the role of the common school is going to be.

The common school must continue to fulfill its traditional function of developing in the minds of children the full possession of the culture which has come down to us through the ages in literature, science and history, and of developing such habits of mind as will function effectively in every life situation which may arise.

Further, the aim of the common school must be expanded so that it will become a positive force in world peace. Education and world peace go together.

AN HISTORIC MOMENT. We meet here today when the spotlight of civilization, searching for the hope of lasting world peace, now sharply concentrates its full light upon the common school.

This may well be an historic moment for us. Though the strug-

* Address delivered at the 80th convocation of the University of the State of New York, Albany, New York, October 17, 1946.

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gles of mankind may be in other arenas, we must seize upon this opportunity to project education of children into its rightful place as the foundation of a peaceful world.

We must think of the common schools today in the light of our times. This is the age of the atomic bomb, the jet plane that travels faster than sound, and radar. It is the age of the most devastating war in the annals of man. It is the age of colossal conflicts of ideas.

Many men of good will are disillusioned. Out of the destruction of war, they had hoped for the construction of peace. It has not yet come.

Science, the one-time ally of man, has become his enemy, for science has devised instruments of destruction. There is talk of yet more staggering inventions to kill and destroy. Just a week ago, the Secretary of War, speaking to the American Federation of Labor, at Chicago, said:

> "If war should come again we may be certain that in speed, range and power of weapons, it will make the war just finished look like a fight with old-time muzzle loaders."

Where are we to turn in these uncertain days for hope of understanding among peoples?

WORKERS FOR PEACE. Fortunately for all of us, there are men in the world who are concerned about the future of mankind and aware of the dangerous roads that lie ahead. They have lived through two World Wars. They now witness peace negotiations at the end of a second war. They are courageous and informed. They are working for a lasting peace.

Some of these men are the organizers and workers in the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization, more popularly known as UNESCO. Perhaps the only error they have made so far was to select so long a name. The movement will happily survive the name, however.

Why UNESCO? The answer seems to be that men and women the world over have come to realize that the great strength of the nation and the world in preserving the arts of peace must be the education of the people. Howard E. Wilson has described UNESCO as an organization "planning to prevent war by direct attack on the causes of war and by up-building the kind of society that makes conflict unnecessary." UNESCO, he says, will work through national authorities for the improvement of their educational systems

and strengthening the bonds of understanding that ought to tie the nations together.

These are not just words. Already specific lines of action have been devised. Three of these are, an international student exchange, an exchange of ideas throughout the world, and a world-wide exchange of books and educational materials. There are many other definite plans of action, all likely to be fruitful.

RE-APPRAISAL. We have all been saying for years, in this country, that the education of the child is the foundation of democratic society. We must now re-appraise that premise. The kind of world we shall have tomorrow depends in great measure upon the kind of education our children receive today. On these children—tomorrow's citizens—will fall the responsibility for making a better world in which all people live in amity. Does it not therefore follow that the education of the child is the foundation of lasting world peace?

I do not differ with those who, since the war ended, have stressed education of adults. I scarcely think it necessary to explore the sound reasons for broadening adult educational opportunities. Yet we must not forget that education begins with the child. That is where we lay the foundation of life, not merely of the individual, but of society and the State.

Educators, then, cannot remain unaware or unmindful of UNESCO or of its aims. We must contribute to its advancement. We can do this by keeping our people informed of its significance. There is, however, still more that we can do as American educators. We can practice here at home what we believe to be true and vital for the world.

BASIC OBJECTIVES. It is hardly feasible for me today to discuss many of these aims. However, I think that there are a few simple, basic objectives that we may properly keep before us.

CHARACTER GROWTH. Our first duty to the child is character growth, which begins with ideals, outlooks and purposes, finding expression in the outward conduct to which this inner activity leads. Character growth may be measured by the responses and reactions of the child to specific situations—and the habits and behavior patterns that follow. We recognize that not only must the good citizen know the virtues of honesty, industry, courtesy, tolerance, coopera-

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tion and service, but he must practice these virtues in the situations that confront him in daily life.

To attain this adult ideal of character, the child must have knowledge to help him form judgments and make choices. He must have properly emotionalized attitudes, ideals and habits. He must have a will to do. The opportunity to practice these knowledges, choices, habits and behavior patterns in response to specific situations must be provided over and over again through the social life of the school community. This is what our schools are trying to do today.

We can contribute toward development of character by emphasizing the virtues that make for harmonious living. These are consideration for others, respect for the rights of others, friendliness, sympathy and unselfishness. We no longer consider obedience as something that may be forced upon a child, as though we could force character upon him. Obedience has been replaced by the spirit of desire to cooperate.

Nowhere is there a better place for a child to take part in activities that develop character than in the common schools. The alert teacher knows this, and the school of today provides the chance for the child to get along with others and learn to have pride in his own behavior. Teacher personality, teacher example and influence are cardinal to the success of such a program. Real friendliness and interest by the teacher in the individual child come first.

A survey of the New York City schools found agreement among principals on the methods by which character growth may be developed. Principals report that every activity of the day contributes to training in correct habits and attitudes. Such character training is not limited to ethical lessons and precepts, but functions in every phase of the pupil's school life. Every procedure, from the moment the pupil meets other pupils on the way to school, through all the varying school activities, to his return from school, offers opportunities for character growth. Character growth achieved in the individual child is reflected in the character of a people.

INDIVIDUAL DEVELOPMENT. Our second duty is to provide opportunities for individual development. It is difficult to assess the many ways in which this may be achieved. Some methods may be broadly delineated at this time.

Individual development rests upon guidance. And guidance is obviously not exclusively the function of the schools. From the day

of his birth, the child is conditioned, trained and guided by his parents. How wisely and well this is done depends upon the capacity, training and insight of his parents. As the child grows older, he is more and more subjected to the influence of relatives, friends and the immediate community, including his religious training. These influences, taken together, may either make or mar the development of the individual. They may, indeed, work at cross purposes. They may lead the child to confusion and lack of faith in accepted ideals and standards of behavior. It is for this reason that educators cooperate in their work with parents and all others whose activities touch the life of the child.

Guidance in the common school is properly a function of every teacher and supervisor. The process must strive to establish a helpful consistency in the home and school life of every child. Informal, friendly, purposeful meetings between teachers and parents have done much toward relieving common school pupils from the strain of meeting various standards of behavior and types of treatment at the hands of adults.

Ideally, this consistency in the home and school life should be extended to include life in the community. True guidance is concerned with the activities of the child in and out of school; with his work, study, and play activities; with his independent, small group and large group experiences.

Effective guidance in the common school is largely concerned with the surveying of each child's needs and the adjustment of the educational program to those needs. Teachers and supervisors alike must realize that the modern curriculum, with its many units of work, is extremely adaptable to individual needs. Consequently, it offers limitless means for stimulating the well-rounded growth of children.

We did not get where we are today in one jump. There has been a gradual evolution. It was during recent years that professional concern shifted from instruction in subject matter to consideration of the growth of the individual child.

Educators came to realize that pupils were persons with physical, emotional and social needs that required sympathetic attention and guidance. A milestone was reached when educators recognized that the function of the common school must be to give all the children a sense of achievement, of belonging, of being wanted. The secondary schools joined in this trend by recognizing that their selective

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character should be abandoned in favor of meeting the needs of all the children. New York City was fortunate in that more than a score of vocational high schools, general and specialized, were available to meet the needs of all students.

Around these fundamentals of character and individual development cluster a variety of additional activities that may help us toward our goals. But we must make up our minds that we shall have to build on these foundations. This can be our contribution in our country, to the great principles of UNESCO.

We have to be practical, too. We may have sound ideals and we may well know how to go about making them real. But, unfortunately, it is not as simple as all that. There are some obstacles to the full attainment of the strength and power of the common school. They challenge us to rise and exercise our energies to overcome them.

THE CLASSROOM AS MEASURE. Let us begin with the crux of the practical school problem. We meet the principal and teacher. No matter what programs are designed at the top of a school system, the plain fact is that they are meaningless if they fall down in action in the classroom. The classroom teacher is the measure of success of our efforts.

SECURITY AND SHORTAGE. More and more we are coming to realize that the happy, contented, devoted worker is one who has a sense of security. That applies as well to a teacher as to anyone else. Teaching must be made economically attractive and secure. A teacher who is concerned about personal financial troubles, or who feels insecure in his work, cannot think wholly of children.

I do not believe that any material advance is made toward solution of this problem by pointing out that teachers' working conditions in one community appears to be slightly better than in another. The fact is that we have been confronted with a serious teacher shortage. Too few candidates for teaching are enrolled in teacher-training institutions. Many eligible candidates are rejecting offers of appointment. We have lost talented teachers who have gone to more attractive employment in industry.

There are many reasons for this condition. The chief one is that teachers are not being paid enough. The time is here now when we must face this question candidly.

If we have established the base for teaching security, namely adequate compensation and attractive conditions of employment, then we may consider another obstacle to achievement of our program.

IN-SERVICE TRAINING. We have not yet attained satisfactory results from in-service training program. It is true that in New York City we have a broad in-service training program that is enthusiastically supported by administrators and teachers. Perhaps, in some respects, we are among the leaders in the field. Whatever we have done, we are glad to share with others who may be interested. Nevertheless, I believe that there is much room for improvement, not only in New York, but elsewhere.

We have great potential power for improvement of educational techniques in our present school teaching staffs. But we have yet to spark it into life. During the coming difficult years, I hope that our educational leaders will give greater emphasis to in-service training for teachers.

The teacher cannot be expected to realize her full powers if she does not receive the continued benefit of contact with fellow-teachers and knowledge of what is going on elsewhere in the world of her profession.

We have long since abandoned the notion that, once a person has qualified to teach and enters a classroom, such a person is forever after a teacher. We know that teachers must continuously learn. In a changing world, the teacher must be in the forefront, aware, informed, eager to keep abreast of events. From the resources of ever-widening knowledge and understanding, the teacher can bring new inspiration to her work and to the children. That is what in-service training must add to the school that meets the challenge of tomorrow.

A program of in-service training, or more properly inspiration, for teachers, has more than a casual effect upon the children. Teachers therefore must have the advantage of training programs that keep them alert and sensitive to the times.

These may be difficult problems, but they are hardly insurmountable. We know our aims. We know the obstacles that lie in our way. We know that if we have the courage to speak for the things we believe in, we shall receive considerate hearing from all who are as concerned as we are with the welfare of our children. We are

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also conscious that our cause is linked with world destiny in these times.

In this connection, I sent a message to our teachers in New York City at the opening of this school term, in part as follows:

> It is through education that the necessary change in thinking will be brought about. In one sense, it is not so much a change that we seek, as a return to fundamental concepts and to the teachings of our fathers. If we may but achieve what has ever been the first and most important aim of education—the development of character and training for citizenship—we shall have taught our youth a way of life that precludes strife.
>
> Neither treaties nor international agreements; neither armament nor disarmament will insure peace, unless all mankind lives by the old rule of do unto others.
>
> The teachers of the world have determined to bring this understanding about and we are proud to be members of the teaching profession dedicated to the most vital task in all human history. We may have faith that in these troubled times, we shall succeed through the united effort of a people who know and trust and love the American heritage.

New York State has a notable record of educational progress. Our schools and our State have been exceptionally fortunate in the vision and leadership displayed by those who have graced the honored position of Commissioner of Education. These leaders have left permanent marks on the progress of education. Our new Commissioner, Dr. Spaulding, will measure up to the great tradition of leadership established by his distinguished predecessors.

We have the great chance, at a critical point in world history, to build firmly for a peaceful world through our children. The opportunity is not peculiarly the property of any individual or community. It is a common opportunity. Our problems in New York City are not different from those of the smallest school in the State. They are simply larger. Our aims are the same. Sharing so much together, in ideals, beliefs and objectives, we shall move forward to make the common school the instrument of lasting peace.

Stop Cheating Your Children!*

CHARLES HARRIS

Shameful exploitation of our teachers is sabotaging our educational system. Here is how you can remedy a national disgrace.

As Americans, you and I like to boast about our public schools—like to point with pride to the democratic educational system into which we send our children and which has given so much strength to our nation's position as a world power.

But before pointing so pridefully you had better take a closer look. I did, and I didn't like what I saw. Neither will you.

That closer look shocked me, wounded my pride. It left one of my deepest convictions shaken, if not shattered. Yet if enough of us are brave enough to take that closer look right—and then act immediately—there may still be time to save our children's future and the future of the United States.

CRISIS. Today, the American educational system of which we have long been proud is sagging sadly—so sadly that unless corrective action is taken quickly and decisively, irreparable damage will be done. And who is responsible for this crisis in our schools? No one but ourselves.

We have built fine buildings and equipped them with the best facilities. But we have forgotten that, like the rare Stradivarius violin which is worthless without a musician to play it, no school can function properly without good teachers. And to our everlasting shame, we have managed to make school teaching one of the most discredited professions in America.

EXODUS. In fact, as you read this article, the greatest educational exodus in history is taking place all around us. By the thousands, our teachers are deserting crowded town and city schoolhouses for better-paying and more attractive jobs. By the thousands we are driving them from their profession, leaving our children (and our country's future as well) to the whims of circumstance.

We should know in advance the inevtiable results. In Nazi Germany, in fascist Italy, in militarist Japan, we have seen the youthful

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product of education operating in reverse. During the past few years we have managed to reduce the size of our world by half or more, while at the same time doubling its complexities. Wouldn't it be a grim joke to send our children untaught and unprepared into this baffling world we've built?

SHORTAGE. Surely the youth of America has never been more desperately in need of teaching and enlightenment. Yet today, the shortage of competent teachers in the U. S. has risen to more than 125,000—*and is still climbing rapidly.* Stuart Chase, author and economist, has estimated the shortage at nearer 500,000. That is, we need 500,000 more teachers to make our system of education anywhere near adequate.

As a direct result of this shortage, more than 7,000 classrooms have been closed, remaining classes have been over-expanded (in many cases up to 60 pupils in a single classroom), individual attention to children has almost vanished and many vital subjects have been dropped.

In plain words, we are cheating our boys and girls of their right to the kind of education they deserve. For the one-third or more of their waking hours they spend in school, they are not getting the help and guidance they urgently need. By acquiescing to a short-sighted and stupid policy, we are depriving our children of the precious heritage which we received from our parents.

EMERGENCY CERTIFICATES. One out of eight teachers in America today is brand-new on the job. What is worse, one out of ten holds an *emergency* certificate. Do you know what an *emergency* certificate is? It is a permit granted to *unqualified* teachers—teachers who can't meet schoolboard requirements but whom we are willing to accept as instructors for our children.

So far this year, about 108,000 such certificates have been issued throughout the country. California has 7,500 emergency teachers, Ohio and Iowa more than 5,000 each. Teachers have even been solicited by classified ads, such as this one in a Southern newspaper: "Teacher wanted. Knowledge of common branches desired, but not required."

In Arkansas, a convict was freed from prison in order to teach. As a former teacher he had assaulted a girl student. But his community couldn't find a replacement, so he was released by public request.

Since 1939, more than 600,000 teachers have left the profession. Far too many of these have been men, with the result that more and more of our boys will complete their schooling without ever having had a teacher of their own sex—a situation roughly comparable to being raised without a father.

Teacher turnover has been greater than the turnover in any other "business." Even worse, there has been a staggering decrease in the number of men and women being trained to teach. During the past year, only about *one-half* as many students enrolled in teachers' colleges as in 1920.

PESSIMISM. Most teachers' colleges are pessimistic about the future. Indiana State Teachers frankly admits its recruiting program is not making headway. The best argument Murray State Teachers College in Kentucky can offer to potential teachers is that teaching is "a good depression profession." And at the University of Connecticut, Dean Sumner A. Dole puts it bluntly: "I tell them they'll never have money unless they marry it or steal it."

In the preparation of this article, teachers, school officials and citizens were interviewed in every section of the country. Without exception, parents were surprised, shocked and angered on being told the facts. They demanded to know *why* our teachers are quitting.

The answer was quickly supplied by the school people themselves. It is a startlingly simple reason: *"Who wants to teach?"*

Apparently, almost no one does—with the exception of the minority of loyal women and men who teach simply because they love it. They have stood by their profession because of a fervent desire to help mold the minds of the coming generation, and because they recognize, if we parents do not, the importance of their job. But there are far too few such men and women, and even many of them are now becoming discouraged.

In North Dakota, a high-school adviser explained: "I can't honestly ask my brightest students to become teachers. I'm sorry, for I suppose I'm helping my profession to commit suicide."

In Colorado, a veteran woman teacher with a master's degree told of talking with a young high-school graduate about teaching as a career. The girl graduate asked: "How much will I earn?"

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"About $1,800 a year, but you'll have to start at $1,200."

"I get $2,300 now as a government clerk," the girl replied. "Why should I spend time and money to go through college and earn *less?*"

This typical remark spotlights the greatest drawback to teaching—low pay. Have you any idea what you and I are paying the men and women on whom we rely to guide our children? In 1939, the average annual salary of all teachers, principals and supervisors was $1,408. Today we have raised that to $1,950 (about $37 per week)—but a good part of it goes to pay the income tax we have slapped back on teachers along with their raises.

And here are some equally shocking figures:

One in every five teachers is paid less than $1,200 *a year.*

One in every 30 *teachers earns less than* $600 *a year.*

Of course, salaries vary in different sections of the country. New York State happens to have the highest average: in 1944, it was $2,726. Today it is slightly higher.

At the other extreme, the average in Maine was only $1,158, and in Georgia $923. In Mississippi, the *average* salary for all teachers, principals and supervisors was the appalling figure of $790.

LACK OF ESTEEM. But there is another drawback to teaching that isn't financial. Its roots are at the heart of the grave crisis now facing us. R. L. Davidson, Jr., of the University of Missouri summed it up by citing the lack of "social esteem" in the job.

"People compliment teachers for the great work they are doing, while at the same time they pity them," he said. "I am amazed at the number of returning servicemen who try to hide the fact that they **were ever teachers."**

Dr. A. F. Myers of New York University recounts the case of a woman who taught in Scarsdale, New York—one of the highest-paid school areas in the country. She left because many parents in Scarsdale considered teachers to be on a social par with domestic servants. The attitude, she said, was typified by one mother who remarked:

"I should think you girls would *just love* teaching here in Scarsdale! We have such handsome chauffeurs."

Another intriguing case concerns a Lieutenant Commander who was stationed temporarily in the same town in which he had taught prior to the war. "In the ten weeks my wife and I were there as 'Navy,' we had more invitations and more friends than in the whole

ten years I taught there," he said. "I only wish I could afford to go back and teach long enough to find out whether I'd be treated as a teacher or naval officer."

But he won't go back. With a new job in the business world, he has found both the social esteem and income he needs to live a normal happy life. He has learned that if as citizens we didn't appreciate him, as businessmen we do.

In fact, during the manpower shortage of the war years, businesses were quick to seize upon this previously untapped fount of talent. Most teachers hold college degrees, some of them master's degrees or better. Experienced in handling delicate human problems, many of them also have priceless scientific and mathematical know-how.

Small wonder we've snapped them up for business—but how tragic that we have failed to place a similar high valuation on their services as teachers for our children! Equally tragic is the fact that most competent teachers have abandoned their profession with real reluctance. One former teacher was nearly in tears as I talked to him.

"I loved teaching," he said, "and still do. But my wife and I came to the dreadful realization that, as an underpaid teacher, *I would not be able to send my own son to college!* Now I'm an assistant personnel director in a local plant, and my weekly pay check almost equals what I formerly earned in a month."

Among teachers who served in the armed forces and have returned to civilian life, the migration into more lucrative and socially recognized fields is especially pronounced. Few are going back to teaching. I have talked to many veterans about this, and opinion was almost unanimous. One young Californian grinned wryly.

"The boys used to do a lot of crabbing in the Army about our pay—how much more they made in civilian life and what they could go back to. When they got around to me, I usually managed to cover up with a coughing fit. Yes, I'm teaching again now, but I've had several offers, and I know I won't be teaching this Fall. Guess the Army spoiled me."

Another veteran, who has landed an advertising job, told me he had been able to send twice as much money to his family while serving as a master sergeant in the Air Forces as during his teaching career. "I couldn't ask my wife to go back to what we'd always struggled on," he concluded solemnly.

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I could think of no reply.

AMERICA'S DISGRACE. Yes, I have taken a closer look at our eductaional system—and I can't see a single bright spot, unless it is the brave determination of a comparatively few loyal teachers to stick it out in spite of us.

As a typical American parent, I have decided that the predicament into which we have forced the teaching profession is America's Number One disgrace. As a layman, however, I realize that I cannot possibly have all the answers. But at the same time I know that I, personally, must do all I can to stem the tide.

A PROGRAM. Here is an attainable program I have worked out for myself. It can serve you, too. For if enough of us do all we can as individuals, the teacher problem, hopeless as it seems, will be solved in short order.

1. I propose to start by getting to know some teachers—personally. My son happens to have one of that vanishing group of male teachers in the elementary schools. When this teacher returns for the new Fall term, I am going to invite him to play golf with me. We will talk about everything he wants to talk about, but I won't mention schools, children or teaching—unless he mentions them first. We're going to play for a nickel a hole—no more—and afterward I'm going to buy him a drink in the locker room. By the end of the afternoon, I'll know at least *one* teacher.

My wife, in much the same way, is planning to invite another teacher to the next meeting of her women's club. They should get along wonderfully, for they are about the same age and both hail from the same section of Illinois. That's a lot more than my wife has in common with many of her acquaintances, so they will likely find plenty of mutual interests once they get together.

Later, we plan to include both of these new-found friends in a dinner party. I don't blame teachers for living alone and *not* liking it. So that kind of social snobbery is going to stop immediately, at least as far as I personally am concerned.

2. I am going to agitate for action in our town to make teaching positions so attractive that the best young graduates in the country will vie with each other for an appointment to our local schools. I will start by convincing one friend of the practicality of my plan. Then we will each go to work on two others. And so on. By

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I believe the job will be three-fourths done. From that point onward—with an all-out drive to recruit teachers conducted via radio, magazines, newspapers, and in our high school—we could succeed.

Once our teachers are given their deserved place in our communities, once they are paid adequately for the all-important job which we expect them to do for our children, the standards of the profession will be immeasurably raised, and the present exodus from our classrooms will be reversed.

The alternative to my program seems to be the complete collapse of our school system and the deliberate sabotaging of our children's future. I have made my choice. What about you?

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* In order to bring this vital message to a wider audience, *Coronet* has made reprints of the original article available. Write to the Education Dept., *Coronet* Magazine, 919 North Michigan, Chicago, sending $1.50 for each 100 reprints of "Stop Cheating Your Children" to cover cost of printing.

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Teachers need to plan with their pupils, and with supervisors, parents, and other teachers. Planning is not possible if there is little or no time for planning, and if the people concerned cannot find the time to meet. It is not sensible for a teacher to operate hour after hour without a plan. Moreover, it is a waste of public funds. Wise observers of high school instruction have stated time and again that more than half of the pupil's time is wasted. Surely the public will want to allow a teacher of 100 pupils three hours a day for planning if by so doing fifty hours of his pupils' time can be put to better use.

3. *The right of a 45-hour week.*

In general, the teacher's work should include (a) 15 hours of teaching, (b) 15 hours of planning and pupil guidance, and (c) 15 hours devoted to sponsoring extracurricular activities, participating in community activities, and grading pupils' written work. It is extremely important for teachers to supervise student activities and to engage in community projects, but it is impossible for a teacher to maintain a high level of efficiency in his classroom if at the same time he is expected to be a social worker, a director of activities, and a guidance official. A teacher's extra work—grading papers, planning, visits to homes, etc.—cannot be left on the desk at the end of the school day. No one knows the average number of hours per week for all teachers, but it is probably much closer to 70 hours a week than it is to 45 hours.

4. *The right to an adequate amount of helpful and constructive supervision.*

The valid purposes of the right kind of supervision are (1) to help the teacher plan, (2) to aid in providing good materials and effective methods, and (3) to insure that the teacher grows on the job. In many of the schools of the armed forces an instructor was supervised from 40 to 60 percent of the time that he taught. It is uneconomical to operate schools without good supervision. An occasional brief visit, inspectional in character, is in many cases unfair to teachers. The teacher who, day after day, does a good job, finds it difficult to maintain morale and to avoid devastating frustration when no one ever comes to see his work or to discuss his plans with him. The right kind of supervision in adequate amounts is deeply appreciated by teachers.

5. *The right to adequate compensation for the full year of fifty-two weeks.*

The average annual salary of public school teachers, principals,

supervisors, and other instructional staff for the year 1944-45 is estimated at $1786, which is more than a $1000 less than the figures used for bargaining purposes in strikes that threatened the nation's economy. The teaching profession includes an astonishing number per hundred who labor with high competence and missionary zeal regardless of compensation. For that we are grateful and proud, but a million persons do not, year after year, give themselves to any calling without appropriate salary. What really happens is that many of our best prospects for teaching are attracted by better-paid jobs in industry, in commerce, and in the other professions. Witness the fact that in the three years preceding World War II the University of Michigan, a school of more than 10,000 students, recommended for certification a total of only eight teachers in chemistry and two in physics, whereas many times this number went from this university into industrial research. Society is unwittingly paying a devastating penalty when it employs persons who never should teach children merely because they are cheaper than good teachers.

Teachers should be paid on a twelve-months basis with a month's vacation each year allowed with pay. The summer months can profitably be devoted to (1) participation in workshops where they might construct and revise units of instruction, (2) editing reports of in-service study groups, (3) studying the needs of their graduates in industry and business, (4) traveling in order to get new and better materials of instruction, and (5) attending colleges and universities to obtain broader and deeper preparation.

6. *The right to have good materials and enough of them.*

The disposition of society toward the cost of educating for living in a peaceful world presents a sharp contrast with the attitude toward the expense of training for combat. The Army and Navy operated schools at a cost per student several times as large as the average spent per pupil in civilian schools. Thousands of mechanics were trained at an annual cost per man greater than the annual salary of the industrial arts teacher in the home school. Some of the schools of the armed forces had magnificent classrooms and laboratories such as teachers in civilian schools can scarcely imagine. Too often a teacher is expected to perform miracles, without the materials needed for the tasks. Such a teacher may have nothing in the classroom beyond a textbook—and that may be hopelessly out-of-date. School boards and administrators should each year check to insure that teachers have at least the minimum materials needed

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for effective work. Of especial importance are such audio-visual aids as are genuinely useful and readily available.

7. *The right to work in a room that, with the help of the students, can be made pleasant and appropriate to the tasks to be learned.*

Some industries have demonstrated that efficiency can be increased by the right working conditions. Too many classrooms give the impression of being places of detention, with little to suggest what the group is trying to do. The work of the teacher of English or mathematics or Spanish will be easier and more effective if the atmosphere of his classroom contributes to the activities. Whenever possible the teacher should have a workroom of his own where he can arrange the settings to make them appropriate to the units of instruction. In the larger schools it is possible to avoid the wearying task of shifting disorganized materials from room to room throughout the school day.

8. *The right to the same personal liberties which other respectable citizens assume for themselves as a matter of course.*

Many of our best prospects for the teaching profession are rejecting teaching as a career because of the petty restrictions and prohibitions that many communities inflict on their teachers. These trivial but annoying requirements in personal conduct vary from community to community. Thus in one community the prohibition may be against teachers' playing cards; in another, dancing on school nights; and in still another, smoking. Communities that object to a teacher's attending movies are rare, but they still exist. However, the beginning teacher not uncommonly finds himself in a town which the lawyer, doctor, business man, priest, and minister can drink any form of liquor any time anywhere and still be held in high regard, whereas a teacher may not have his contract renewed if he drinks a single glass of beer in public. The truly professional teacher will, as a matter of course, respect the mores of his community and maintain at least as high standards as other respected citizens. A teacher with high professional zeal probably would *want* to do very few forbidden things that other citizens can do without being censored, but he certainly should have the *right* to do them. A community may well expect decency and idealism of its teachers, but it has no right to scrutinize every petty detail of their personal lives. No group of intelligent citizens in other occupations and professions would want every detail of their personal lives supervised. Teachers are only human beings and should be treated as such. At any rate

it is unwise for parents to annoy teachers with trivialities. By doing so, they turn colorful, vigorous personalities away from the teaching profession and thus deprive their own children of teachers who might provide strong leadership for high ideals.

9. *The right to an externship.*

No institution of teacher education can turn out a finished product. Yet seldom is the beginning teacher given a light assignment and an adequate amount of supervision. Indeed he is lucky if he does not draw the heaviest load and the most disagreeable tasks.

The solution to the problem of the beginning teacher is the idea of externship. This idea, so vital in medical education, has long been advocated in teacher education and is generally approved, but seldom found in practice. The nature and character of the period of externship is suggested by the following provisions: (1) a light teaching load in the first year of teaching—perhaps half-time; (2) salary appropriate to the load, ideally a living wage for a single person; (3) experience in a great variety of tasks, as for example extracurricular, administrative, and teaching; (4) adequate and competent supervision; (5) an opportunity to study the school and community as a "whole" before being limited to the teaching of a single subject or grade; (6) an arrangement truly professional which guarantees that the externship concept will not be used as a means of hiring a cheap teacher to replace a more expensive but experienced teacher; and (7) the use of gifted teachers with special interest in professional problems to supervise beginning teachers, allowing them time in the school day to do the job and extra compensation for this valuable and technical service.

10. *The right to a realistic program of in-service education.*

By in-service education we mean training on the job. The experienced teacher from time to time needs to revise materials and methods. The in-service program should be geared to a competent department of research that will keep materials and techniques up to date without too much grief and waste of effort. Precious time and energy are now wasted by groups of tired teachers who, after school at the end of a long and weary day, are expected to revise the curriculum. Witness the fact that 85,000 courses of study, created largely by scissors and paste techniques, have been filed in the curriculum collection at Teachers College, Columbia University, and that only a few can be rated as helpful. Boards of Education must come to realize that keeping the curriculum up to date is a

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difficult and technical task which, if attempted at all by teachers, must be done in the school hours of the work day and not in overtime periods without compensation.

11. *The right to participate in modifying the curriculum and methods and in formulating school policies.*

Sound administration of schools will utilize the constructive ideas of all teachers to make sure that the service of the school to its pupils may be made as good as possible, and to insure that a teacher will grow on the job.

12. *The right to keep from being lost in the profession.*

Many excellent teachers are lost in the vast numbers who, with relatively little ability, training, and experience, come and go. There is no systematic provision for continued recognition of growth in the service. All are teachers! There is little differentiation that recognizes competence or length of service except by meager annual increments of increase in salary. To no small degree the gifted teacher is always in competition with all newcomers, however incompetent. Even the members of a strong school board may not be aware that they have especially fine teachers in their schools. Mere financial rewards are not sufficient to maintain morale. A good teacher has the right to be identified by professional recognition that will strengthen his hand in dealing with the public and the pupil. Such machinery for differentiation between the professional worker and the mere transient does not now exist. However, gifted teachers may reasonably look to their professional organizations for the design of a system of identification that is long overdue.

A New York Teacher Looks at UNESCO

HOWARD L. HURWITZ
Grover Cleveland High School

The late H. G. Wells was the reputed owner of a crystal ball which frequently gave him foresight denied to most of us. In 1939, Mr. Wells discounted the importance of the New York World's Fair in its professed role as an agency for world peace. "At the present educational level," he said, "world peace is an impossibility."

The Meaning of UNESCO

Delegates from forty-four of the United Nations, meeting in London, in November 1945, were in the shadow of more than painful prophecy. Two atomic bombs had fallen upon Japanese cities; hundreds more were being prepared; the world was on its knees, and hope beat faintly in weakened bodies. The delegates were determined. After two weeks of heated debate a constitution was molded. It is intended to be the instrument which will eradicate the low educational level regarded by Wells and others as the cancer in any world peace structure.

For eloquence and high purpose the preamble to the Constitution of the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization compares favorably with documents which have achieved immortality. Its opening words declare *"that since wars begin in the minds of men, it is in the minds of men that the defences of peace must be constructed; that ignorance of each other's ways and lives has been a common cause, throughout the history of mankind, of that suspicion and mistrust between the peoples of the world through which their differences have all too often broken into war."*

The Constitution itself is brief. Its 3000 words permit even quicker reading than the 6000 word Constitution of the United States and the 10,000 word Charter of the United Nations.

The prime purpose of UNESCO, according to the Constitution, *"is to contribute to peace and security by promoting collaboration among the nations through education, science and culture."* This is to be realized by: (1) utilizing to the fullest possible extent such mass media of communication as the radio, cinema, and press; (2) fostering popular education and suggesting methods "best suited to prepare the children of the world for the responsibilities of free-

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dom"; (3) protecting the "world's inheritance of books, works of art and monuments of history and science"; (4) encouraging cooperative international activity, exchange of scholars, students, publications, and objects of artistic and scientific interest.

The London Conference considered subjects ranging from the establishment of international copyright laws to the creation of a world university. It was enabled to proceed rapidly because of the careful preparation which preceded the meeting. Plans for its future work are being laid by a Preparatory Commission which is studying practical means of implementing UNESCO'S desire to: (1) develop media of mass communication to combat the illiteracy of one-half the world's two billion population; (2) get additional aid to liberated and devastated countries; (3) survey educational and cultural needs at the request of various countries; (4) find and develop technical and professional personnel; (5) consolidate the work of numerous educational, scientific, and cultural bodies already in existence.

UNESCO is one of the specialized agencies provided for in Articles 57 and 63 of the Charter of the United Nations. It will have the general powers to make reports to member states and to request reports from them, to call international conferences, and to advise the United Nations on matters within its competence. The Organization will include a General Conference, Executive Board, and a Secretariat. As a measure of its autonomy, nations not members of the United Nations may be admitted by a two-thirds vote of the General Conference. This provision will permit some former neutrals to enter promptly. Members expelled from the United Nations automatically cease to be members of UNESCO. The Constitution, like the Charter of the United Nations, is silent on the subject of withdrawal from membership.

UNESCO has behind it the experience of those who have worked in the field of international cooperation for a generation. Such associations are not new, *"But,"* according to Archibald MacLeish, Chairman of the United States delegation, *"the agreement of the nations themselves to work together through all the channels of communication and with all the universal language of science, art and learning to increase their understanding of each other and to root out the prejudice and ignorance which have separated them in the past, is a new thing in the history of international undertakings."*

Background of UNESCO

Efforts to encourage the growth of an international educational organization to preserve world peace go back at least as far as the early development of modern nationalism in Europe. John Amos Comenius (1592-1670), a witness to the desolation wrought by the Thirty Years War, proposed a Pansophic College where teachers from all nations could meet to further international understanding. Early in the nineteenth century Marc-Antoine Jullien (1775-1848), who had been a diplomatic agent of Napoleon, sought to compare educational systems with a view to raising the general level of education in Europe. His search for information was coldly discouraged, but he is justly acclaimed to be the father of comparative studies in education. As late as September, 1914, an international conference of educators planned to assemble at the Hague, but its voice was drowned in the roar of armament factories.

Between World War I and World War II the movement for international intellectual interchanges was accelerated. Careful students of this period can pronounce fearlessly the names of such organizations as the International Council of Scientific Unions, International Union of Academies, International Bureau of Education, Institute of Intellectual Cooperation, etc. These sincere but ineffective organizations came as close to the classroom as the contents of a Columbia seminar in anthropology to the materials in a civics syllabus for slow learners.

The League of Nations was hostile to specific provision for an international educational organization. Henri Bonnet, who now represents France on the United Nations Security Council, wrote: *"The League . . . failed to grasp the profoud need of a real peace strongly guaranteed and founded on comprehension and cooperation . . . [The Covenant] contained some precise prescriptions about health, social welfare, freedom of transit, and equitable conditions of trade, but there was nothing at all about intellectual work."* Not until 1926 was a Commission on Intellectual Cooperation recognized as an organ of the League, and even this concession was granted only by virtue of its sponsors agreeing to drop the word "education" from its title. In contrast to the treatment at Versailles, educational and cultural cooperation was accepted as essential to the peace at the San Francisco sessions.

A Conference of Allied Ministers of Education had convened as

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early as 1942 for the purpose of studying the problem of reestablishing normal educational services after the war. The United States was not a member but had an observer present. Later, a United States delegation participated formally, and in November, 1945, aided actively in drafting the UNESCO Constitution and preparing an agenda for the first meeting scheduled for November, 1946, in Paris.

Our delegation was most insistent in emphasizing the role to be played by mass media in achieving mutual understanding among the peoples of the world and stressed the importance of furthering an adult education program. The United States became a member of UNESCO when President Truman signed a Congressional resolution on July 30, 1946.

Weighing Criticisms of UNESCO

1. All members of the United Nations were present at the London Conference except Ethiopia, Honduras, Costa Rica, and Russia. The absence of the latter was recognized as a blow to the Conference, and it sought to ease future relations by sending a special message to Moscow expressing the hope that the Soviet Union would be able to participate later in the work of the new organization.

Russia, like the United States, had had an observer at the Conference of Allied Ministers of Education which prepared the draft constitution. It declined the invitation of the United Kingdom and France to attend the London Conference and urged its postponement until the Economic and Social Council of the United Nations was set up, since UNESCO was to be subordinate to the Economic and Social Council.

The real reason for failure of Russia to attend, according to James Marshall, who represented the *New York Herald Tribune* at the London Conference, was a *"dearth of experienced people in Russia to represent their country at such international gatherings."* Russia, he reported, was putting all its energies into the establishment of the United Nations, the major effort.

Since Russia's satellites, Poland, Czechoslovakia, and Jugoslavia, were active at the Conference, there is no reason to believe that ideological differences separate the Soviet Union from cooperation with the nations represented in UNESCO. Russia has been kept carefully informed by the Conference, and it is expected that its representatives will play their part in the Organization.

2. UNESCO is *"prohibited from intervening in matters which are essentially within . . . domestic jurisdiction,"* according to Section 3, Article I of the Constitution. Chief responsibility for this clause rests with the United States, since our delegation was bound by the Fulbright-Taft Resolution of May 24, 1945, which urged participation in a *"permanent international organization for educational and cultural affairs . . . provided that such agency shall not interfere with educational systems or programs within the several nations, or their administration."* This caveat to UNESCO is regarded with mixed feelings by prominent educators. The late W. C. Bagley, editor of *School and Society,* regarded it as a serious restriction. George D. Stoddard, former New York State Commissioner of Education and a delegate to the London Conference, raised the fundamental question, *". . . . will a threat to peace ever again in this world be simply a matter of 'domestic jurisdiction'?"*

States belonging to UNESCO will be bound by the Charter of the United Nations, which makes it clear that the maintenance of peace and security is not a matter of domestic jurisdiction. If educational facilities are used to endanger peace, the offending nation runs the risk of investigation and will have to answer to the Security Council.

The restriction should not prevent UNESCO from denouncing the prostitution of education to the cause of war. It must reverse the policy of the League's agency, which did not once denounce Nazism and its total domination of German schools.

3. UNESCO consists only of delegates from member governments, and each nation has one vote, in contrast to the example of the International Labor Organization. Voluntary organizations are relegated to the background and have no vote or direct influence on the proceedings. This may be partially overcome if members of the National Commissions, recommended in Article VII of the Constitution, are chosen from voluntary organizations and exercise judgment independent of State departments. UNESCO pledges to draw upon the full technical and professional resources of international groups.

4. UNESCO cannot call upon UNRRA for aid in meeting educational needs of devastated countries. Our Congress placed restrictions on the use of UNRRA funds so that only elementary needs are considered. The Congress also feared that UNRRA might become entangled in political conflicts within the liberated countries if it participated directly in reviving education.

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It is obvious that implementation of UNESCO'S high purpose will remain a chimera in countries where people are of necessity concerned with the contents of bellies rather than minds. Wherever possible, reconstruction of bodies and minds should proceed simultaneously.

5. UNESCO is "just another paper organization, full of air and collapsible," according to one skeptical teacher. *For our part, we do not agree that everything must be as it always has been. UNESCO can be a force for creating mutual understanding if it succeeds in reaching the classroom teacher.* The quality of men and women present at the London Conference, and the record of its deliberations, promise a future for UNESCO that will keep it on the ground and not in the clouds where its predecessors have deliberated "far from the madding crowd's ignoble strife."

Role of the New York City Public Schools

Our school system is the largest of the 112,000 public school systems in the United States. It is, in fact, the largest in the world. Such a system should consciously strive for the success of UNESCO. Some recommendations follow:

1. Appropriate arrangements should be made for a token shipment, at least, of some half-used and new school supplies, through UNESCO, to liberated and needful nations. This is consistent with Section 3, Article IX of UNESCO'S Constitution which permits the Director-General to "receive gifts, bequests, and subventions directly from governments, public and private institutions, associations and private persons."

2. New York City school administrators should be made available, on loan, to UNESCO to assist in the reorganization of school systems which request such help.

3. When teacher exchanges are effected, New York City teachers should be included in the exchange.

4. The Superintendent of Schools, through the National Commission, should advise UNESCO of practices successful in the New York City schools which may be adapted to other school systems.

5. Appropriate volumes, such as *All the Children,* and motion pictures of New York's schools in action, should be made available to UNESCO for world distribution.

6. Professional organizations in subject fields should create standing committees on UNESCO affairs to keep the membership informed and to make recommendations to the Superintendent, as necessary, to implement the work of UNESCO. For example, subject associations might report frequently on textbooks which contain matter prejudicial to understanding of other peoples.

Looking Forward

UNESCO can be one of the cornerstones of the peace in a world in which no stone will be left unturned if atomic power is used for destructive ends. There is still time to embark upon a long-range program to banish illiteracy and develop mutual understanding among peoples.

UNESCO correctly perceives the uses to which mass media can be put in making a safer world; nor will it neglect the more usual methods of reaching children in the classroom. True, there are many countries where classrooms are a luxury afforded to the few; but this must not stop us from making an attempt along the lines drawn by the London Conference.

Leadership must come from the most advanced states. The New York City school system must not stint in providing leadership and in popularizing among its own staff the cause of International educational cooperation.

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The Present College Crisis

MARION M. SCULLY, Stuyvesant High School

Over one hundred and fifty years ago, we in America started an experiment which was not only political in nature but concerned with the fundamental rights of human beings. Equality of opportunity was one of the basic tenets of this new philosophy and it has been especially in the field of education that the growth of this equality of opportunity has made enormous strides. If we stop to consider the number of people who, even 100 years ago, received the equivalent of our present-day elementary school education, we would be appalled to find so few. The broadening of the educational opportunities for the many has been a gradual process; it has been only in very recent years that Child Labor Laws have taken the child out of the factory and put him into the classroom. The growth of student bodies in institutions of higher learning has been slower; nevertheless, the number of Americans with a college education today is seven times what it was at the turn of the century. It is with students that desire the chance for higher education that we are especially concerned because, in spite of the democratic process of trying to make learning available to all who want it, certain students today, wishing to enter liberal arts colleges or professional schools, are meeting with a denial of the democratic principle in the form of discriminatory quotas, sometimes actual, sometimes implied.

DISCRIMINATION. Naturally, every college must discriminate to the extent that it may set up standards of ability to make certain that the prospective students can profit by the instruction it has to offer. It is not with this type of discrimination that we are concerned, but rather with those practices which make a student's racial or religious background part of his qualification for admission. It is only human to think of discrimination in terms of one's own special problem—"Will the fact that I am a Catholic, a Jew, an Italian, a Negro, prevent me from being accepted at the college of my choice?" That discrimination is practiced against these groups, and others as well, is an unhappy fact, though almost no university would freely admit to such practices.

THE PROBLEM. This then is the problem: what can be done to correct this insidious and dangerous situation? Once again, it is a

question of putting democratic theory into practice. I believe that progress in this field, as in others, must be a relatively slow process and I do not believe, much as I would like to, that it can be accomplished solely by legislation, such as the Austin-Mahoney Bill. It is a sorry admission to have to make that legislation is necessary to make educational institutions carry out in fact the democratic ideals they preach in theory. Moreover, the enforcing of the provisions of this bill in regard to removing tax exemptions from the offending institutions might well prevent insuperable difficulties, as it is not hard to conceive that it would be possible to adhere to the letter of the law without being changed by its spirit.

POSSIBLE SOLUTION. Three proposals present themselves to my mind as possible solutions to the problem:

First—a State University open to all on a basis of merit only
Second—a Federal Grant for scholarships to various institutions
Third—the establishment of sectarian schools

The first—a State University—is needed for many reasons in addition to the one under discussion, for many gifted students are prevented from attending college because of financial inability. Such a University would present the State of New York with a golden opportunity for democratic leadership in the field of education, and, with its undoubted accomplishments, would serve as a goad to private institutions to follow the example thus set. Other states have universities which add luster to their names in the educational field —Ohio, Pennsylvania, California, Illinois and Wisconsin. Why not New York?

The Federal Grant for scholarships is an interesting idea presented by President Conant of Harvard in a recent article in the *New York Times* entitled *The Challenge to American Education*. In it, he suggests that the Federal government set up funds for scholarships, especially in the fields of the professions, law, architecture, engineering and medicine. Such scholarships would be administered by the individual states and be distributed purely on a basis of merit, thus broadening the foundation of educational opportunity for all.

My third suggestion, that of sectarian schools, does not solve the basic problem of discrimination itself, but it would provide additional educational facilities for those groups which are being discriminated against. Actually, many of our great universities were

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originally founded as such sectarian schools; for example: Yale, Harvard, Amherst and Princeton—but in the passing years, they have reached out to accept students of all denominations and racial backgrounds. It would be hoped that if sectarian schools were to be set up as a partial answer to the present crisis in education that the same broadening might come in the process of their development. This broadening can be traced in such schools as Fordham and Notre Dame. The designation *The Fighting Irish* is a title that has lost all literal meaning. I should like to emphasize that this is far from being an ideal solution as it does not attack the root of the problem, but it would, at least, provide the educational opportunity which is being sought.

EDUCATION BY EXAMPLE. The whole thing boils down to educating the educators by inducing them to practice what they preach. This, I believe, cannot be done by threats, coercion or punishment, but rather by example, as is now being done in other state universities; just as we cannot force democracy on the peoples of other nations but rather must show them that it is desirable. Perhaps even more effective than sanctions against private institutions which indulge in discriminatory practices would be a pitiless light of publicity upon their actions, for an aroused public opinion is one of the most effective levers in the world. Public confidence is what supports these institutions and this were withdrawn, they would have to change to the truly democratic ideal of equal opportunity for all.

As I pointed out at the beginning, we are conducting a great experiment in democracy in this country and we must not forget that it is *still* in the process of realization. The ideal for which we aim may be slow of growth, but that it is growing, despite such setbacks as the subject of this discussion, cannot be doubted. President Conant's words make a fitting conclusion to this discussion:

"It is of the utmost significance for our future that belief in this ideal of equality of opportunity be strengthened and that we move each year nearer to its realization in practice . . . the better our schools teach and practice the basic tenets of American democracy, the more chance there is for personal liberty, as we know it, to continue in these United States."

Ten Reasons Why I Am A Good Teacher (and How To Be One)

NATHAN H. GLICKSMAN, Macomb's Junior High School

I AM INEFFICIENT. I am a firm convert to the mentally hygienic concept of Conscious Inefficiency. I never start a lesson "on the dot." Instead I bumble around my desk, possibly putting wrong sums to my attendance sheet, while the class relaxes, starts to chatter, and gets into numerous minor mischiefs.

I motivate my slowly approaching lesson by bawling out one or two "denizens of the back seats," deploring at random the sad decay of good manners among the contemporary generation, and pointing disgustedly to the placard (front left corner of the room) headed: "The Big Four In Character," and containing the following distillate of classroom ethic: 1. *Self-direction;* 2. *Application;* 3. *Consideration,* with vocal addendum that *Good Posture* may not be on the chart, but it is nonetheless a potent silent partner in the Big Four.

I achieve proper orientation for initiating the lesson by addressing the occult center of the room in dubious tones: "Does anyone know where we left off in *Caesar* last Thursday?" (I know very well where we left off last Thursday because I penciled the place "5/24/46," but it gives my young barbarians the warm thrill of saving the Teacher from the dire results of his absent-minded ineptness.)

A tabulation of frequencies usually yields the correct page and line, and I begin my lesson—*Type*: Appreciation; *Aim*: To understand and enjoy a long dramatic masterpiece.

I am an intransigeant addict to the completely Oral Interpretation of the Literary Selection, though my scalp prickles belligerently at hearing teachers of English speak about "reading the selection to the class." In my benighted classes we never "read" a selection; we "talk" our way through it.—But that's for another paper on *How I Do Not Teach Literature.*

I usually succeed in not finishing any lesson unit planned for any period because the closing bell is sure to ring five or ten minutes ahead of my expectation, completely demolishing that much-to-be-desired "whole" effect. Yet I am inevitably compensated by the ever-astounding fact that despite all expert pedagogic theory to the contrary, I always succeed in polishing off the orphaned fragment at the beginning of some succeeding lesson without the slightest

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need for re-motivation. In fact, my own "split-unit method" seems to give a sort of continuity from period to period that might otherwise be lacking.

I HATE EFFICIENCY. Efficiency has no place in an industry whose raw material is the barbarian moppet and whose end product is the socially sensitized human being. I see a school system as an enterprise in which profit is directly proportional to financial deficit, in which maximum processing of materials is achieved when its assembly line moves at its most leisurely rate, and in which the teacher who makes his pupils work "up to their capacities" is brought up on charges and dismissed as a baneful influence.

Two years ago my second revelation came upon my reading this revealing gem by Frederick Schiller Faust: "No one is more than 50% efficient, but when a man is backed into a corner by a man who intends to kill him, he can be as high as 90% efficient."

We teachers have allowed the high priests of metric idiocy and the bearers of standardized tests to hypnotize us into such a sense of awed responsibility to the I.Q. and the Achievement Quotient that we have been frantically backing our pupils into corners. In our misguided devotion to maximum accomplishment, we have been sowing deep-rooting family discords by frightening well-intentioned parents into unceasing fret over whether Johnny and Mary are working "up to their individual capacity," and never-ending anxiety lest they be developing an abiding indolence in their "work habits."

I once had a two-headed boy among my pupils—fortunately they *are* comparatively rare—who really offered a challenge in "Individuation." His left head had an I.Q. of 156 and his right head, 85—both individually validated by oral Binet. His written-test marks were really a trial to his teachers, for we could not evolve a satisfactory way of determining whether they represented real effort "to Capacity," since the most skillful cross-examination never revealed how much each head had contributed. Only once did I dare suggest judging his achievement on the basis of an average I.Q.—120½, for the Principal lowered a stern eyebrow and closed the interview firmly with: "Young man, in *our* school *we* do *not* practice mass education. The keynote of our responsibility to the individual child is . . . etc., etc."

I can, in addition, assure my colleagues that at least one old adage

should be qualified, for two heads are not always better than one. But let us return to "working at maximum capacity."

We teachers, with dedicated zeal, have been busy for years attempting to break down Nature's ideal safeguard against neurosis —the child's inborn wholesome distaste for using more than 25% of his brain potential at any moment. May we not be seeding generations of neurotics?

I DO NOT INSPIRE MY PUPILS TO MAXIMUM PRODUCTIVITY. Nor do I high-gear my own pedagogic output. I like to believe that despite pressures of teaching styles and supervisors, I *do* successfully achieve in my classes an occasional bottleneck where as we ooze along, we can indeed find some time for quiet reflection and restful re-chewing and better digestion of mental cud in the presence of the appropriate emotional enzymes.

Oh, yes, we have our moments of intense effort, of high octane brain output, but those are made to stand out as not-to-frequent high spots. It's bad to be ever on the mountain top; Man's natural medium is normally the foothill. Knowing this, I try to quell any temptation to inspire or stimulate my pupils more than once or twice a week.

I IGNORE THE AIM OF MY LESSON! I was never the "born teacher." I took five years to discover that for the beginner a little textbook pedagogy is a homicidal thing, that I had never learned even the first letters in the ABC of teaching from any text or Ed course, and that I had developed whatever skill I had at my trade in the same way that the barber learns his—by cutting hair, by willing demonstration from the Principal Barber (brave soul), by observing good and bad colleagues, but chiefly by personally spoiling countless haircuts.

I needed ten years to notice that my pupils remembered incidental irrelevancies long after the facts I hammered at were forgotten, and fifteen years to add another to my sparse collection of golden rules of pragmatic pedagogy: forget the immediate aim of your lesson, but make the irrelevancies count.

MY ROOM DECOR RARELY CHANGES. In this age of transition, in our world of flux, the pupil must find some fixed points to help him take his bearings. In these times of change, his emotional

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well-being requires something that never changes—my classroom is one of these somethings.

There's a fine nostalgic magnetism about it that never fails to draw from my old, revisiting pupils some opening comment, as: "There's Lincoln—and Washington—and Sherlock Holmes!" "And there's the Owl!" "Gee, the room is just the same!"—And they are right. The copper bas relief of Lincoln is always dead center above the front blackboard, flanked by balanced rows of permanently-mounted colored, calendar reproductions of scenes from famous literary works. Lincoln looks across many heads to the rear where Washington, "hanged" high from the molding, tops another row of scenes rich in literary associtaions. The sliding closet doors are the Art gallery where Henry Holliday's Dante forever clasps his leaping heart at first sight of Beatrice, and St. John sits in simple permanent dignity. On top of the closet perches my stuffed Owl, looking down in smug accusation at heads not quite so wise. The doors to the paper closet are the Patriotic Corner, where Paul Revere rides eternally and the Pioneers move ever westward under Lincoln's *Gettysburg Address* and among illustrated stanzas of *The Star-Spangled Banner*. The Bulletin Boards, on the fixed interstitial panels alternated among the closet doors, are my only concession to variety, but they are always headed in this order, starting from the entrance: Literature, Current Events, Geography, Official.

I have crystallized my Philosophy of Schoolroom Decoration. Decorate not for a day, week, month, term, season, year, or supervisor, but for eternity.—By the way, I have a bare spot next to Mark Twain. Has anyone a good colored likeness of O. Henry that might fill it for the next twenty years?

I PLAY CLOSE TO THE DESK. I was born into the Teaching System at a time when perpetual teacher circulation among the seat rows began to be not only stylish, but mandatory, and the continuous prowl replaced classic authoritarian repose as the characteristic "attitude" of the "good" teacher. I learned that the good teacher is "alive," and that the degree of his aliveness was proportional to his mean distance from his desk and high chair, and measurable by a pedometer.

Luckily, before my naive absorption of this dynamic standard of teaching effectiveness could permanently set my outlook, I had the good fortune to be present at a session of an alertness Course at

which Dr. Bayne (correct me if Memory deceives) remarked that if he had his way he'd protect the pupil's mental and emotional equilibrium by chaining these hyper-thyroid pedagogues to their desks.

I've cemented that gem of insight into the cornerstone of my pedagogic edifice, which, I grant, is no house of flashcards.

I concede my pupil the right to some privacy, even in the classroom, and the privilege of denying me access to his seatwork until such time as he feels it is revised, complete, and ready for exhibit. He seems to learn almost as much, and he likes me much better than in the days when God had nothing on me in diagnostic omniscience, when I had every kid split wide open and all his "weaknesses" neatly laid out and tabulated with precise metric tenderness, when the Morrison Mastery Formula was my 11th Commandment, when the bell-shaped curve sounded sweetly through all the schools in the land, and when my pupils hated me like poison because I could see each of them only as a bundle of deficiencies awaiting my remedial fervor.

I must now confess that only rarely do I stroll about while the homestudy answers are being discussed, and I seem to have lost my curiosity as to whether the pupil so busy with his pen is merely correcting his errors, or is feverishly copying the answers verbatim on an initially blank sheet of paper. And I additionally confess that, aside from an occasional random sampling, all homework is collected and checked strictly by class secretary, and all I ever see is the checklist.

But, oh, the wear and tear we save, and the unpleasant moments we avoid. And for some inexplicable reason, they seem to learn fairly well.—Yes, I have learned to "overlook"—chiefly from the vantage of desk or high chair. The lines are drawn—between front seats and Teacher's desk, and the pupil does the crossing.

I PUT DISCIPLINE ON A PERSONAL BASIS because I have never been able to hammer a generalized ethic into a pupil before I had succeeded in winning sufficient personal liking and good will to stimulate his desire to stand well in my estimation. The child's resistance to those teachers who leave him indifferent or antagonistic is matched only by his cruelty to those he finds lacking in firmness.

A personal popularity pays off in a surprising display of tolerance for my unreasonableness on my "off days" when my internal con-

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flicts (who knows a good cheap psychiatrist?) blow off the lid, and I proceed unreasonably to tear the heads off a few trivial offenders, make the class atmosphere generally miserable for everyone, and otherwise abuse my power as teacher. Then I am glad that my pupils like me enough to forgive me next day and bear no grudges. And when one of my official class pupils misbehaves while beyond my immediate sphere of suasion to socially desirable conduct, I can subsequently plead (without excess fear of a sub-vocal: "Who cares!"): "If you don't value your own good name, at least think of mine!"

I AM A MASTER OF SOPHOMORIC HUMOR, which helps tide one over the rough spots and builds the positive reflex toward its possessor.—Random samples:

When doodling pupil starts his middle finger rolling his pencil (and it's always hexagonal) up and down his desk-top incline during a particularly touching passage from "In School Days," nothing so conserves emotional balance as this small-mouthed icy-staring interpolation: "Look, I'm only a poor school teacher struggling to earn an honest living—*do you mind?*"

Or when in mid-winter the pupils passing into my room start their overly-dramatized interpretation of uncontrollable ague, I elicit a census with a sweet: "How many pupils think the room is too cold?" and follow this with a saccharine: "That will be remedied. As soon as we start the lesson, I'll make it nice and hot for some of you." Or consulting the wall thermometer I announce cheerfully: "The thermometer says to the contrary that it *is* warm enough. Your subjective judgments are therefore outvoted by an objective majority of one."

Or when I take someone to task for one of the myriad possible misdemeanors, and he counters with, "But, Mr Glicksman, I wasn't doin' nothin' ", I reply sententiously, "My dear child, that's just the point. Your parents have entrusted me with the responsibilty of seeing that you do *not* spend your time here in doing *nothing*, but in doing *something* educational.—So *get busy!*"

They *always* laugh.

I KEEP A HIGH POLISH ON MY CROSSPATCH RATING. I live in the neighborhood in which I teach, and walk to and from school, usually with entourage. This not only compels me to build

a high level of good will, but enables me to elicit information on the comparative popularity, or lack of it, of my colleagues, and the reasons therefor.

I have discovered that schizophrenia is one of the major occupational ailments of the teacher, for I know that many a charming colleague has been able to induce an unabashed hate among almost 100% of her pupils. My pondering on this Jekyll-Hyde reaction of so many teachers has stimulated me to making a conscious fight to be as much myself *in* the classroom as out, and to keep a sensitive awareness of my pupils' reactions to me.

I can now, with minimum conscious effort, sense the germination of resentment toward me, and plan to win my way back into favor Example:

A sweet little Rosa, whose seat is directly before my desk, was one day the scapegoat for a general class lassitude while I too was under the influence of a rare combination of Monday morning, vile meterologic influences, and possibly some personal endocrine misfunctioning.

Next day, when I asked for a loan of the grammar text at the start of a lesson, Rosa was not among the first to offer me hers. I said, in a stage whisper, "You wouldn't lend a book to a teacher you hate, would you?"

She looked down at her desk top and shook her head in agreement.

During the lesson, I noted her effort to avoid my glance. As the class left the room, I said sotto voice, "My what a stern, unforgiving little girl we have here."

When she returned for 3:15 dismissal, I managed to get in a final word: "I'll bet you never even accept an apology."

That broke the ice. She grinned and said, "I guess I'm not used to getting a scolding from *you*, Mr. Glicksman."

"The term is young, Rosa," I assured her blithely. "You'll have have plenty of time to learn."

Next lesson she was the first among the usual half dozen or so to thrust her book forward for my use.—I felt that my Crosspatch Rating was up again. Why not? I work hardest at it.

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A "Brief" for Yearly Promotions in the High Schools

WALLACE R. KNAPP, James Monroe High School

The topic of "Yearly Promotion" has been discussed pro and con in school circles over a long period of years. For some time I have felt that we should strive to overcome the inertia and resistance to change which have in large measure been responsible for blocking the conversion from semi-annual promotion in the high schools. It was, indeed, gratifying to me that I had no sooner started to put my ideas into writing then I learned that the initiation of "Yearly Promotions" was already scheduled to take place in the Elementary Schools this year, and in the Junior High Schools next year. Therefore, I feel the case for the High Schools has been immeasurably enhanced. Although there are admitted difficulties in working out the Year Plan, they are not insuperable. They have been met by other progressive communities such as White Plains, New York, where the Year Plan has been in operation for some time.

INCREASED TIME FOR INSTRUCTION

Advantages	*Disadvantages*	*Comments*
This amounts to about three weeks more of teaching time each year (at a period when climatic conditions should be most favorable for study), and obviates any need for equalizing the fall and spring terms.	Pupil loses some examination-taking experience. Teachers lose the diversion from classroom routine.	Formal school uniform examination can be substitued for Regents examinations and reach all students with economy in time and effort. About three weeks of instruction are lost each year during the period of reorganization, before, during and after Regents Examinations. Coming close after Xmas recess, the diversion is scarcely needed.

MONEY SAVED BY CITY

Advantages	*Disadvantages*	*Comments*
The increased attendance at mid-year would save the city a large sum through increased State Aid.* Weak pupils kept on the "Year Plan" frequently make good by the end of the year, whereas their failure at the end of one term keeps them back six months at the city's and parents' expense. The yearly overhead cost of reorganization could be cut almost in half.	Weak students are apparently forced to repeat a whole year when they do fail.	Special adjustment or remedial classes can, and should, be formed to take care of unusually weak students, who should be weeded out early in the year. Students failing at the end of a year might be assigned to special make-up classes in addition to their advanced work, and these should not require a full year's repetition. (Very low I.Q.'s are promoted by age rather than progress.)

BETTER GUIDANCE

Keeping teacher and pupil together for a year helps the teacher become better acquainted with the pupil and to know how to guide him. The pupil doesn't have to adjust himself so often to new teachers and their eccentricities.	Pupils who have a weak teacher must suffer for a whole year. Teachers with a poor or difficult group of pupils must wait a year for a change.	The gain should far exceed the loss here. The less efficient teacher is put on the spot because he has full responsibility and can't pass the buck after a term to some one else to finish. The needs of a problem class don't have to be learned the second term by a new teacher.

*Note. A very large number of students do not attend school Regents week, nor the week after, because they take no examinations or get nothing for coming—the final marks have been entered.

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IMPROVED CURRICULUM

Advantages	*Disadvantages*	*Comments*
Better distribution of time in teaching should be possible. Frequently the work of one term is "crowded" and another is "light" because of the variations in syllabi, pupil adaptation, and length of school term. These should be less frequent changes in pupils' programs and experimenting with a number of disassociated electives.	There is no possibility of maintaining a long list of freely chosen ½ year electives. If ½ year electives are grouped or paired, the student might be forced to take an undesired elective in order to get the desired one. There would be difficulty in handling prescribed ½ year course such as civics, or intermediate algebra.	In many cases grouping two ½ year courses would be an advantage. For example, third year math. offers a very desirable integration of intermediate algebra and trigonometry. In subjects where continuity is not essential, a pupil might drop one subject and start another at midyear and receive credit (non-Regents). Pupils suffer now from too much freedom in electives. Civics might be spread over a year by giving it to one group the first half, and the other the second, alternating with required art; or two times a week one term, and three times the next, in addition to the four other major subjects. It is understood a number of adjustments, none insuperable, must be made, but the gains are more than worth the effort.

INTEGRATION WITH THE WHOLE EDUCATIONAL SET-UP

Advantages	*Disadvantages*	*Comments*
Colleges for the most part enroll pupils in the fall. Students leaving high school in the month of January are at a disadvantage. Elementary school pupils now are promoted according to the year plan. Next year the junior high group will likewise be promoted on the year plan. As a result there will be very few registrants for high school at mid-year, and practically no replacements therefor if the high schools continue to graduate pupils in January.	There is a slight disadvantage to the pupil whose birthday falls in the winter months, in the sense that if he is just too young to enroll in school, he must wait a year instead of six months. This difficulty however applies to the kindergarten level.	At the high school level age differences would be a very minor consideration, as there would be enough opportunity to make adjustment in the lower grades.

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Minority Problems in Public Schools†

EDWARD REICH*

Nothing reveals the superficiality of modern culture in the soul of man so effectively as the widespread prejudice and intolerance in modern life. What is there in this witches' brew that makes the deep draught so common? Can the public school, its curriculum, or its administrative practices help in the development of good human relations?

Dr. Brameld,† who selected seven communities varying in population from 25,000 to well over a million—communities like Massopolis, Dynaboro and Copperberg (Incognito), which have been around in the newspapers quite frequently, set out to find out how community patterns affect the school and vice versa. What's being done with prejudices?

The economic character of the community, its major occupations, the status of labor, the local politics and economics, the composition of the population and the status of its minority groups come in for a little raking over. Then he studies the essential philosophy of the school system, its administrative machinery, its staff, the organization of that staff and its salary schedule, the higher education of the community, school community relations, school plants and facilities. He studies school policies and curriculum facilities for combatting prejudice.

Teachers and administrators don't come out of this study too well, but it's not too bad at all. Among the inspired intercultural education hits highs in romanticism and lows in vision.

The amazing thing about the human relations problem is that a human inventory of those who hold prejudices in the United States seems to add up to 140,000,000 people—almost everybody has them. There are prejudices against Spaniards, Mexicans, Negroes, Portuguese, Latin-Americans, Chinese, Jews, Protestants, and Catholics—and for "reasons"—and that the school, which is composed of human beings, will be no different is regrettably only too clear.

SURFACE OPTIMISM. Don't go too deep and you'll remain optimistic. We're getting along very well all over the U.S.A. in schools.

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* Coordinator of Consumer Education, Board of Education, New York City.

† *Minority Problems in the Public Schools* by Theodore Brameld, Harper and Brothers, $2.50, 264 pages.

Go below the surface and you get an occasional sharp insight. Administrative and non-academic posts go to minorities in disproportionately small number. There is considerable evidence of finagling of districts to keep out X's or Y's from a given school. Segregation of the self-imposed and socially imposed varieties, appears inevitable. In fact, Copperberg will give Negro children special transportation to keep them out of all-white schools.

LAXITY. Generally speaking, there are few efforts to make teachers more conscious of intercultural problems. Few teacher groups have undertaken any work in this direction. A few schools have intercultural committees of one kind or another. There are a few curricular activities and more extracurricular activities that tend toward intercultural understanding. Certain types of vocational education are closed to many minorities, and many liberal schools reason that when employment opportunities are not available there is little that vocational education can do.

There seems to be an abundance of community committees virtually everywhere, but again no great successes have been reported. Massopolis comes out pretty high and Copperberg very low.

Discrimination and segregation haunt the Negro on a larger scale than others, and since the Negro minority has increased in many communities new problems grow at a rate faster than old problems can be solved, and, as we are well aware, old problems are not being solved with any alacrity. But there is virtually no city among the seven in which anti-Semitism is not discernible.

PREJUDICE IS GROWING. We come away from the book trying hard to agree with the author: *"While the picture is by no means a completely hopeful one, it is more hopeful than it has ever been in the history of American education,"* but we would have to be more naively trusting than hopeful. *There are as many indications that the situation is getting worse as there are that it is getting better.* Since the war, there have been many organizations which, under one guise or another, have stirred guileful witch brews with terms "white," "Christian," "gentile," "veteran," "anti-Communist" and the rest. The stuff tastes fine to people with money, votes, frustrations and a badly concealed sadism. There is little reason to believe that without a conscious effort of some kind these tensions will be reduced.

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Philosophically the intercultural problem goes way beyond the mixed company of Southern politicians, rabble rousers, and street corner loiters. With improved communications tensions have become world-wide in nature. The Nazi racial nonsense has gotten around to South Africa, Harlem and Argentina. A situation in Atlanta supports a point of view of Detroit. And within any given community there is many a shudder wasted at the thought of a black man, a Mexican, a Catholic or a foreigner as a leader of one of the "nons"— luckily not always a public shudder. Asia, Europe, and the Americas are full of human beings whose prejudices cannot be fought on the level of reason or logic, whose quixotic emotional patterns are the determinants of war, peace and internecine strife. Their general reactions are often vile, not only to many human beings, but to everything of profound cultural significance, dead and alive. They are essentially anti-intellectual. If they were capable of understanding themselves they'd realize that they hate themselves most of all.

ROOTS OF PREJUDICE. Men like Fritz Redl of Wayne University, Dr. Rogers of Chicago University, Dr. Allport of Harvard have sought to understand these prejudice patterns in terms of the childhood-parental culture, in terms of a "union card" to certain social strata, as outlets to primitive impulses, which are projected into the persecution of others as a tool in establishing superiority, or as a means of concealing a real fear. They see prejudice as not merely the result of ignorance, but as the result of home attitudes, school situations, unhappy contacts, a vast personal psychological pattern, fathomless. Among their interesting revelations are that women are more tolerant of minorities than men, and that the more religious the upbringing, the greater the tendency towards prejudice.

Well, where does the teacher come in?

When a problem appears too difficult of solution to leaders in politics and thought, when these leaders get physically and emotionally lazy in the face of a tremendous practical job, the tendency is to pass it vaguely on to education, to the school. There is the easy assumption that we have all the answers, all the money, teachers, social, economic and political power, to create the desirable change.

ENROLLMENT IN FOREIGN LANGUAGES—OCTOBER 1946

	Senior High Schools	*Junior High Schools*	*Evening High Schools*	*Vocational High Schools*	*Totals*
French	32,156	16,382	1,638	294	50,470
German	7,380	683	194	54	8,311
Greek	26	—	—	—	26
Hebrew	2,723	191	109	—	3,023
Italian	7,187	2,699	444	73	10,403
Latin	12,398	1,155	224	64	13,841
Spanish	46,905	11,580	2,967	707	62,159
Norwegian	—	—	125	—	125
General Lang.	493	214	—	—	707
Portuguese	—	—	12	—	12
					149,077

GROWTH SINCE LAST YEAR

	Oct. 1945	*Oct. 1946*	*Increase*
French	50,387	50,470	⅙ of 1%
German	8,175	8,311	1¾%
Greek	20	26	30%
Hebrew	2,882	3,023	5%
Italian	10,010	10,403	4—%
Latin	14,549	13,841	(loss) 5%
Portuguese	49	12	15%
Spanish	61,483	62,159	1%
General Lang.	519	707	36%
Norwegian	—	125	—
	148,074	149,077	1,003 Increase

THEODORE HUEBENER

Director of Foreign Languages

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High Points

THE ANTIQUARIAN'S CORNER

A few pupils, probably fancying themselves antiquarians of thirty-five or more, must have been taking Serutan. The side and back boards in some of the rooms had been covered with inscriptions which seemed to have been inspired by the coaxing tones of the announcer's, *"And remember, when you read Serutan backwards, it spells Nature's."* Ever susceptible to the influence of radio, the pupils had playfully acted on the suggestion. Some of the results were pure nonsense: others showed a degree of skill as when Anna and Otto, Bob and Nan were coupled.

An antiquarian of the old school might have frowned and then lectured on the evils of modern inventions. However, modern antiquarians have come across the word "motivation" in their old textbooks on education, and have learned to link something old with something new. The Antiquarian also felt that unless checked, this spelling backwards might develop into a fad like the epic of Kilroy. In addition, the critics of modern educational methods seeing the results might spread the canard that when our students spell backwards, the results are the same as when they think they're spelling the words forwards!

The Antiquarian felt a distinct responsibility for the good name of our profession. In fact, he was faced with what educators call a challenge! He resolved to combine the old methods of saturation with the modern method of reasoning.

The Antiquarian was aided by the fact that the first year Latin book* used in the school contains a few examples of spelling backwards in the introductory chapter as a means of arousing interest. Latin, because of its inflections, lends itself to this type of word play. The authors quote, *"Si nummi, immunis,"* freely translated, "If you have money, you will go free," as the motto of a cynical Roman lawyer.

The textbook also has that remarkable example found scratched in the ancient plaster of a wall at Cirencester (pronounced "sister," I suppose), England, *Sator Arepo tenet opera rotas.* This has amazingly ingenious features. Each word has the same number of letters,

* *Latin—First Year,* by R. V. D. Magoffin and M. Y. Henry, (Silver, Burdett Company, New York, 1938). Variant translation found in *Mathematics for the Million,* by L. Hogben, p. 199, (N. Y., W. W. Norton & Co., Inc., 1942).

the last word is the reverse of the first, the second of the fourth, the middle reads the same in both directions. Arranged as a word square, it can be read vertically from the bottom up or the top down, horizontally backwards and forwards, from top or bottom, and it will still say, *"Arepo the sower holds the wheels at work."*

S A T O R
A R E P O
T E N E T
O P E R A
R O T A S

This may well have been the invention of an ancient cart salesman, the prototype of the Serutan advertising man!

This business of spelling backwards has a dignified name and a long literary history. The form was invented by Sotades about 280 B.C. The name is *palindrome,* "a running backwards," with the same Greek root as hippo*drome* and *drome*dary. The *New English Dictionary* defines a palindrome as, *"A word, verse or sentence that reads the same when the letters composing it are taken in the reverse order."* In actual practice, the definition receives a liberal interpretation to include words or sentences that form other words or sentences when read backwards. Examples are "trap" and "time" which are known to the specialist as recurrent or reversible palindromes. The pure palindrome is called reciprocal, like "level."

The most famous palindromes of our times are radar and Laval. These are pure, with no allusion to the character of the latter. Many other palindromes of modern times are neither reciprocal nor reversible. In fact, they are pseudo-palindromes like Serutan and something new which has been added to the radio repertoire, *"Sekalf stun eparg."* The latter is to be taken with *Klim.* Fantastic place-names listed by George R. Stewart in *Names on the Land* were formed by spelling backwards: Lebam, Seloc, Maharg, Rolyat, Reklaw, Notla, Sacul, and Tesnus. Authors sometimes resort to this device for a pen name: Walter De La Mare wrote his first book, *Songs of Childhood,* under the name of Walter Ramal.

The oldest simple palindrome is the name of the first woman. It is assumed that she had to have this name to answer Adam properly when he introduced himself with the words, "Madam I'm Adam."

Napoleon, who had plenty of time at St. Helena to engage in verbal sports, is supposed to have been the author of a perfect palindrome, "Able was I ere I saw Elba." He was probably follow-

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ing the advice of Robert Burton, who recommended the making of *epigrammata palindroma* as a cure for melancholia.*

The works of Sotades have been lost, but his later admirers have made up for that technical loss. In 1802, George Bendotes of Vienna published a Greek poem by Ambrose Hieromonachus Pamperes, consisting of 416 lines, every one of them a palindrome! Our fellow antiquarian, Walsh, considers this "a marvellous monument of misplaced ingenuity." *Stet!* However, a monument still more marvelous, because it was erected in the name of scholarship, has been described by Ernest Weekley.* Morgan Kavanagh, a philologist of the last half of the nineteenth century, incorporated some weird theories about language in his book, *The Origin of Language and Myths.* One of his principles was that any word can be read backwards as well as forwards to explain its origin, *"for,"* he argued erroneously, *"why should English not have the same privilege as Hebrew?"* Using this system, Kavanagh reasoned that wolf and water were related since they both have swift motion. *"And is not wolf the same as flow read from right to left?"*

And so, reversing our theme from the end to the beginning, we're back to Serutan whose makers never imagined that their simple efforts to reverse the course of nature would suggest all this too. Anyone who had the ambition to become a palindromist has surely lost it after a dose of this.

MORRIS ROSENBLUM Samuel J. Tilden High School

* *The Anatomy of Melancholy,* by Robert Burton, Pt. 2, Sect. 2, Mem. 4.
* *Something About Words,* by Ernest Weekley, (E. P. Dutton and Company, Inc., New York, 1936).

A CHALLENGE TO COMPULSORY MILITARY TRAINING

A number of years after the inauguration of compulsory military training, the sports-loving American public might witness not only the greatest revival of athletics in the history of this or any other country, but also see more and, as a result of competition, better performers than they ever thought existed PROVIDED the physical education program is conducted correctly.

INADEQUACIES. With the exception of the Navy Pre-Flight Schools under Commander Tom Hamilton, physical education missed the boat in this war. Two factors enabled it to escape unscathed.

One, the concentration of attention was on winning the war. People were more interested in the score—the gains of our men—than in the price our men had to pay for these gains. Two, even those who could have talked either did not want to because of fear of hurting the war effort, or because they felt their talking would be of no avail. With the motivating factor gone as to why men should be subjected to military life, not only will the content, personnel, organization, and administration have to be changed, but also its emphasis. Physical education was never meant to be a "filler in" in any program. Neither was it meant to be conducted by men who merely were in authority, and neither was it so simple a profession that anyone who attended a special type of school for one month could do a real job. And unless physical education is used judiciously, our peacetime army will be deprived of an extremely powerful motivating force for positive action as well as the cohesive force which can hold the entire program together in a way preferred by citizens in a democracy.

The foregoing is not a reflection upon military authorities. They had a war to win. They were looking for the best, and when they changed their original physical education program they thought they were getting it. That they did not, is no fault of theirs. They were sold a program because to them it looked good on paper. But little did they realize that although the "newer" program differed from the "older" in the type of calisthenic exercises and an "additional testing procedure" (which physical education has been carrying on for years), the programs were fundamentally the same. Both were built upon a physical concept—big muscles—power—physical power. What if a man can do two push-ups—four after a few weeks of training—twenty at the end of three months—or can do thirty, forty, or fifty push-ups—or run well or climb a wall. Does that make him a better fighting man per se? Not if we know that the motivating factor of all action in warfare is basically the result of the ascendancy of one idea charged with a very high emotional potential over another; that the CORTEX makes the decision, keeps the other idea with its emotional deluges under control and "TELLS" the muscles to move. MUSCLES IN THEMSELVES DON'T PREDICATE ACTION. All psychological evidence says there is no correlation between what was given and the soldier's life. Unfortunately, facts agree with psychological evidence. One third of our men come back suffering from war neurosis.

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PRIMARY PURPOSE. And physical education's primary purpose, either in the training of a wartime or peacetime Army, is the development of combat attitudes and mind sets and cortical control of emotional reactions, a task to which it alone, aside from the most hazardous infiltration courses, is uniquely adapted. As a result of participation, more push-ups, more chins, better running and climbing—the same proportion of physical development as in programs which strive mainly for power will accrue—but all this as a by-product of this participation. Incidentally, all the physical, mental, social growths given by educational authorities to participation will result here also. We must not forget that these are dependent upon leadership. And they will be extremely important for a peacetime Army. Although these other growths have their place in the program, we must not forget for what purpose this peacetime army is made. To do so would negate the reason for having it altogether.

CRITERIA. Now we can set up criteria to determine whether physical activity will do what it should do in this more practical physical education program. Let us go to science for the answer. First, let us go to the emotions. Dr. Cannon is a universal authority. He discovered that any activity or situation which involves contact with the possibility of injury, or fighting, or fleeing will upset the endocrines violently. Next, let us go to psychology and education, Professor Dewey's principle, *"That we only learn by doing, by actually experiencing,"* has yet to be proved fallacious. Professor Thorndike's Law of Exercise is generally accepted. He says that the more you practice a certain activity, the better you will become in it. Dr. Watson has found from experiments on children that we are born with only two fears, a loss of support and a loud noise, and that all other fears are learned, are conditioned, and Dr. Pavlov has shown with experiments that we can *Condition*—make an organism do that which it was not originally endowed to do or unlearn that which it learned by setting the proper stage.

SYNTHESIS. Let us put all of this together to get our measuring rods as to the types of activities we should use in our program. The physical activity to be chosen must be of such a nature as to upset the endocrines violently; it must be such that can actually experience this emotional upheaval prior to and during participation. The activity must be presented not once, not twice or three times, but many

many times. Given the proper activity, given experiences in it under competent guidance, we can reasonably expect a change—a change which might mean the difference between life or death on the battlefield, or life and a living death as a result of experiencing intense emotional reactions which the organism has not the capacity to cope with because of lack of training.

Activities which meet these criteria should be made the *core* of the program. But that is not sufficient, either for a wartime or peacetime army. We must project physical education against our American background, our sports American background. And that means that we have to give those activities which the American press has woven into American life, and which are now a definite part of the American way of living.

Against this, practicing calisthenics as an end in itself looks not only small but infantile. Yes, they are a part of the program, since in the training for any athletic competition they are used, but only in that respect.

Knowing the activities is one thing. Making sure that EVERY MAN EVERY DAY will participate in them is quite another. The analogy that brings this more forcibly to our mind is penicillin. We know its curative values. But even today, it cannot be given to all those who need it. When its distribution will become universal, then and only then will humanity derive its benefits. Knowing some of the activities of physical education and then having only an exceedingly small percentage subjected to them either daily or a few times over a period of months is of negligible value. During wartime an excuse might have been somewhat plausible. We were in a war. But with compulsory military training no excuse whatsoever exists for not giving everyone, everyday, the entire program.

PLACE OF HEALTH EDUCATION. Physical education must become a definite and integral part of the military curriculum, and as such it MUST be programmed one hour during the working day with sufficient time thereafter for the men to clean up and rest to compensate for the great physical output. If organized in such a way as to utilize the inherent drive to excel, it can be made so palatable as to be used during the evenings. And it should be. And the young men should be made to spend their leisure in such activities as will make them healthy and worthwhile citizens. An organization which uses these drives to do will facilitate a program which

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not only has for its objective the making of soldiers, but also American citizens.

NEED FOR EXPERTS. With the core activities chosen, with the other activities which form the next concentric ring of the program agreed upon, with an organization which has at its basis the utilization of inherent drives and which will reach everyone each day, the program will still fail to achieve its rightful objectives unless it is supervised and taught by experts. Unless experts do so, it will degenerate to a farce, as will any other program. Experts are not made by sending almost anyone with authority to a school for one month to learn how to teach 16 calisthenic exercises, a few games and a number of other facts on organization and administration given from an inductive point of view. Physical education is not so easy as all that. Unless authorities in the compulsory military training program take all these facts into consideration, they will not only lose an opportunity to share in the building of better athletes and a more consciously athletic and physically minded America, but will also lose the cohesive force which can hold the entire program together and make it run smoothly.

MICHAEL SACHEY — Fort Hamilton High School

NEW YORK ORGANIZATIONS ENGAGED IN PROMOTING INTER-FAITH AND INTER-GROUP COLLABORATION

(*This list was prepared especially for the New York University Council for the Study of Human Relations by Dr. Hymen Alpern, Principal of Evander Childs High School. The statements of purpose and program are quoted from the groups' official literature*).

1. *NATIONAL CONFERENCE OF CHRISTIANS AND JEWS*, 381 Fourth Avenue, New York 16.

"Believing in a spiritual interpretation of the universe and deriving its inspiration therefrom, the National Conference exists to promote justice, amity, understanding and cooperation among Protestants, Catholics and Jews in the United States, and to analyze, moderate and finally elminate inter-group prejudices which disfigure and distort religious, business, social and political relations, with a view to the establishment of a social order in which the religious ideals of brotherhood and justice shall become the standards

of human relationships. . . . Education constitutes the keynote of the Conference program. . . . Many destructive prejudices derive in part from warped emotional patterns. The Conference emphasizes, accordingly, the re-education of emotional responses. . . . The Conference leaves to other organizations many tasks of direct action on which Protestants, Catholics and Jews can cooperate. However, many Round Tables have dealt effectively with local tension situations by calling together for conference, leaders of the three faiths in their communities. The Conference is primarily interested in the first essential of inter-group cooperation, namely, conference to secure understanding of one another."

2. *COUNCIL AGAINST INTOLERANCE IN AMERICA*, 17 East 42nd Street, New York 17.

"The Council Against Intolerance in America is, as its name indicates, an organization created to combat prejudice in America. The Council seeks to do two things. First, through rallies, celebrations and other public ceremonies, it calls attention to American ideals, to American heroes, to American traditions—and publicizes the danger to national unity of intolerance of any groups within our borders. Second, it conducts an educational program which, through teachers, administrators and others in educational work, reaches the young people of America. . . . Educational publications and conferences, daily correspondence with teachers, special work that day-by-day events demand, distribution of material for the armed forces and various governmental agencies, building better relations between racial and religious groups—this is the Council's program. . . . Another major acitivity in the educational program is the Regional Conference."

3. *COMMON COUNCIL FOR AMERICAN UNITY*, 222 Fourth Avenue, New York 3.

Some of its purposes are "to promote greater unity and understanding among all Americans; to further an appreciation of what each group has contributed to this country; to overcome discrimination because of birth, race, or nationality; and to help the foreign born and their children share fully and constructively in American life." It is carrying out this program "through its magazine, *COMMON GROUND*; through educational articles in 27 languages, sent to 1000 foreign-language newspapers; through citizenship assistance to over 10,000 people a year; through *INTERPRETER RE-*

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LEASES, a specialized information service about problems of aliens; through the American Common, a meeting place where Americans of all backgrounds exchange ideas, experiences, and points of view, and through active cooperation with government agencies, civic and social organizations, nationality groups."

4. *BUREAU FOR INTERCULTURAL EDUCATION*, 221 West 57th Street, New York 19.

The Bureau "was set up to apply scientific research to the alleviation and resolution of situations involving group tension, and to combat the problems of inter-group friction and social intolerance. It aims to develop mutual understanding among the children and youth of the various culture groups as a basis for their cooperation. It fosters an appreciaion of the part each has played and can continue to play in making America. It also seeks to awaken a sense of common adventure among Americans of many antecedents and to promote American unity through loyalty to democratic ideals. It affords guidance and study materials, based on years of research and experimentation, to teachers and communtiy leaders who recognize the necessity of intercultural education. . . . Experimentation has been carried on in scores of public schools, producing integrated programs of informative and dramtic types. It has supplied books and pamphlets which suggest the objectives of a program of intercultural education, the steps in planning such a program, and the actual teaching practice useful in everyday classroom work. It is sponsoring a series of teachers' manuals and resource units under the general title, *PROBLEMS OF RACE AND CULTURE IN AMERICAN EDUCATION*."

5. *COUNCIL FOR DEMOCRACY*, 11 West 42nd Street, New York 18.

"The Council was founded a year before Pearl Harbor for the purpose of stimulating thought and democratic action by the American public during the period of America's real but undeclared involvement in the war. The organizers of the Council knew that democracy needed organized defense, and that the first step toward such defense was education—education in the principles and meaning of democracy, which should be nonpolitical, nonfactional, and dictated by the best interests of our country, immediate as well as future. . . . Since its organization in 1940 the Council for Democracy has been engaged actively, but without publicity, in both the *fact-*

finding and the *policy* phases of Negro-White relations in America, including a poll of existent opinions. . . . A study of anti-Semitism in labor circles was made in two smaller industrial cities. . . . An extensive series of round table off-the-record conference in New York were arranged. The Council also has advisory and consultant services. . . . Among the interests of the Council are race relations, which include Round Table conferences on the Negro in industry and a survey and plan for a mid-western city; new plays for college and school acting groups; a national policy in race relations; a survey of labor-management committees; and a general concern with the democratic foreign policy and with specific problems of democracy at home."

6. *ANTI-NAZI LEAGUE TO CHAMPION HUMAN RIGHTS*, 165 West 46th Street, New York 19.

"The Non-Sectarian Anti-Nazi League, founded in 1933, by Samuel Untermeyer, has been in the forefront investigating and exposing Nazi and Nazi-inspired activities since the days when the street scene in many American cities took on some of the complexion of the activities in Germany and countries later overrun by the Nazi hordes. Through its work and extensive files, the League has been in a position to render valuable aid to the Federal Government, the military authorities and many local law-enforcement agencies. . . . The Anti-Nazi League fights prejudice against peoples of all races, creeds, and nationalities."

7. *COMMISSION ON THE CHURCH AND MINORITY PEOPLES* of The Federal Council of the Churches of Christ in America, 297 Fourth Avenue, New York 10.

"It is the aim of the Commission to assist the churches of the United States: 1) to appraise themselves in relation to the Christian ideal of human brotherhood and race relation in the new world situation brought about by the war; 2) to advance their attitudes and activities and those of their members in overcoming the weakness shown by their own self-appraisal, and to make them more effective in helping to advance the cause of the Kingdom of God with all that the teachings of the Fatherhood of God and Brotherhood of Man imply; 3) to overcome scientifically false and un-Christian theories of race which would consign some races to a permanently inferior status involving disregard of the Christian principle of the sacredness of personality; 4) to understand and

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make known the points of view of modern biology, philosophy and social science, and of the teaching of Christianity on the subject of race; 5) to make known concrete experiments of successful interracial adjustment and cooperation which can be studied with profit and followed, at least in principle, by churches and other Christian organizations." . . . The emphasis of the Commission is on "promotion, education and action."

8. *ANTI-DEFAMATION LEAGUE*, 212 Fifth Avenue, New York 10.

"The Anti-Defamation League, organized some 25 years ago, is primarily concerned with strengthening the democratic ideals in America. Their immediate objective is to expose the anti-Semites who are the enemies of democracy. The ultimate aim is to develop programs in the fields of radio, advertising, newspaper, books and literature that will convey the contribution of Jews to the evolution of the democratic ideal, the participation of the Jews in the war effort, and also to inculcate the principles of tolerance, and a respect for the dignity of man. . . . They cooperate with government agencies, educational institutions, and church groups in supplying them with material, literature, and suggestions to affect a better understanding of minority groups."

9. *NATIONAL URBAN LEAGUE* for Social Service Among Negroes, 1133 Broadway, New York 10.

"In general, the League's attention has been directed toward checking the growth of racial tension, preventing the spread of racial conflict, developing harmonious teamwork between white and Negro citizens in promoting the war program, and releasing the full energies of thirteen million Negroes to insure a victorious and democratic peace. More specifically, the League attention and resources have been concentrated upon three main problem areas; Community Organization and Planning, Industrial and Labor Relations and Public Education for Interracial Cooperation."

10. *THE GIRLS' FRIENDLY SOCIETY*, 386 Fourth Avenue, New York 16.

"Our objective is to provide a program of work, play, creative activity, and worship through which we hope to develop girls physically, mentally, socially and spiritually into the sort of women who can make a real contribution to their community and to the Church.

While our organization is nonsectarian in its scope, our leaders and associates all belong to the Episcopal Church. This means that most of our members come from that church. However, we have a great many members of other churches. For a long time, our Board and staff have been very much interested in founding a better understanding of and relationships with persons and groups of other races and views. We encourage study of material that will bring about this understanding. We promote study of legislation that may help in this area. Our Mission Object one year was to raise money for scholarships for Negro girls at colleges and universities that will fit them for becoming trained workers in the church. We also contributed scholarships for American-Japanese girls to go on with their college work. We have branches organized in parishes all over the country."

11. *COMMISSION ON ECONOMIC DISCRIMINATION*, 330 West 42nd Street, New York 18.

"For the past fourteen years of its existence, the Commission on Economic Discrimination, of the American Jewish Congress, a pioneer in its field, has undertaken to devote itself to the scientific study of the forms and extent of discrimination against Jews in employment, the education of employers, and the investigation and adjustment of specific cases of discrimination brought to its attention."

12. *THE AMERICAN JEWISH COMMITTEE*, 386 Fourth Avenue, New York 16.

"In addition to steps for the combatting of anti-Semitism abroad and its repercussions in the United States, the Committee has conducted a long-range program of public education. It has kept close watch on anti-Semitism in this country, and exerted itself to acquaint the American people with the nature of the Jewish situation in Germany, as well as to create a wholesome understanding between Jews and non-Jews in America. The Commmittee has also cooperated with non-Jewish groups in the fostering of inter-faith good will."

13. *INTERNATIONAL CENTER, Y.W.C.A.*, 341 East 17th Street, New York 3.

"The International Center is directing its work along the following lines: 1) To help individuals of foreign background make personal and social adjustments to American life; 2) To promote under-

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standing among peoples of varied racial and nationality backgrounds; 3) To interpret the role of the individual American in the present situation—by developing constructive thinking toward the war and post-war aims, by offering opportunities for participation—shoulder to shoulder with other Americans—in the war effort; 4) To create an understanding of our responsibilities as world citizens."

14. *AMERICAN COMMITTEE FOR PROTECTION OF FOREIGN BORN*, 79 Fifth Avenue, New York 3.

"1) To combat discrimination on the ground of race, nationality or non-citizenship. 2) To amend the naturalization laws by reducing the fees, moderating the educational requirements and abolishing discrimination on the ground of race and economic viewpoint. 3) To prevent destruction of American families by deportation. 4) To maintain the traditional right of asylum for political and religious refugees in the United States. . . . The Committee maintains a Naturalization Aid Service to assist non-citizens who wish to become naturalized citizens of the United States."

15. *THE EAST AND WEST ASSOCIATION*, 40 East 49th Street, New York 17.

This association is "devoted to new and better understanding between peoples through mutual knowledge." Its purpose is "purely and broadly educational." It provides "for the interchange of knowledge in terms which average people in any country can understand. . . . It works 1) through individual memberships, 2) through East and West Clubs, 3) through East and West Chapters, 4) through membership publications, 5) through radio, 6) through letters abroad, 7) through public meetings, 8) through surveys, 9) through services."

16. *INTERCULTURAL EDUCATION WORKSHOP*, 204 East 18th Street, New York 3.

The Workshop is a "Consultative Service for School, Church, and Community Groups." It "aids teachers in planning their activity units and special programs. . . . It organized Neighborhood-Home Festival and group songs and dances for adult groups in school, church and community centers." It conducts "Leadership training courses and short courses on the handling of prejudiced situations—First Aid to Wounded Personalities—and offers a series of lectures on the factual approach to the understanding of some of our major minority groups."

17. *LOYAL AMERICANS OF GERMAN DESCENT*, 285 Madison Avenue, New York 17.

They "serve as the agency through which every man, woman and child of German birth or extraction can express himself as a loyal American." They "help all loyal workers to stay at their jobs; moreover, they assist labor and management in finding a scheme whereby loyal unemployed of German descent will not be refused employment because of their extraction when they otherwise qualify for the job." They also "weed out all causes of misunderstanding and friction deriving from the erroneous idea that German descent is identical with Nazi leanings."

18. *WORLD ALLIANCE FOR INTERNATIONAL FRIENDSHIP THROUGH THE CHURCHES*, 70 Fifth Avenue, New York 11.

"If the United States is to play her full part in winning the peace, it is necessary to carry on a broad program of education in every community throughout the nation. The task of the Alliance is primarily to influence public opinion through the churches and other religious organizations."

19. *FREE WORLD ASSOCIATION*, 144 Bleecker Street, New York 12.

"Free World is a world-wide movement of private citizens and organizations established all over the world, whose aim it is to give the utmost support to the United Nations' war effort and to prepare the organization of a peaceful democratic world order. In support of the principles of the Atlantic Charter and the Four Freedoms, the Free World Association stands for the following principles: 1) World Organization, 2) Economic Democracy, 3) Political Democracy, 4) International Democracy, 5) Collective Security."

20. *FOUNDATION OF CATHOLICS FOR HUMAN BROTHERHOOD*, 384 East 149th Street, New York 55.

It is engaged in "work of education intended to stamp out racial and religious bigotry in the United States." "Believing that Our Lord's commandment of Brotherly Love can be put into effect by the concerted effort of men of good will, we plan to attack the pagan roots of disunion, subversion and racial antipathy by means of a vast nation-wide educational campagn. . . . By introducing into the homes of the nation such invaluable works as the Papal encyclicals on momentous human problems and those of eminent Catholic

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writers on national and world affairs, with particular emphasis on religious and racial matters affecting Catholics, Protestants and Jews alike; together with our own proposed publication *CONCORD* we shall go far toward the solution of the problems that threaten to overwhelm our country. . . . Our work has been placed under the patronage and guidance of Our Blessed Mother." It distributes about 150 different pamphlets, written by eminent Catholic scholars on racial and religious prejudices and related subjects.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS. There are actually more than the foregoing twenty organizations working for the improvement of relations among the diverse elements in our population. Those that are primarily more national than local in scope have been omitted. Some few who are listed as operating in the New York area have also been omitted because they failed to reply to our letter of inquiry regarding their composition and objectives.

According to their own statements of purpose and program, all of the twenty on the above list are service organizations. Other functions in their program may be tabulated as follows:

		Educational	*Research and*			
Organization	*Schools*	*Churches*	*Com-munity*	*Experi-mentation*	*Economic*	*Political & Social*
1. ____	X	X	X			
2. ____	X					X
3. ____	X		X			
4. ____	X			X		
5. ____			X	X	X	X
6. ____					X	X
7. ____		X		X		
8. ____					X	X
9. ____			X		X	X
10. ____		X				
11. ____					X	
12. ____			X			X
13. ____		X	X			
14. ____			X			X
15. ____	X		X	X		
16. ____	X	X	X			
17. ____					X	X
18. ____		X				
19. ____			X			X
20. ____	X	X	X			

HYMAN ALPERN

Evander Childs High School

A COMPARISON OF THE ACHIEVEMENT OF AN HONOR SCHOOL CLASS AND A REGULAR CLASS IN CHEMISTRY

The pupils entering the James Monroe High School from elementary and junior high schools are divided into groups according to ability as indicated by their record in the sending school, their I. Q. and their achievement on tests administered by the school on registration day. The groups with the highest ratings are classified as honor-school classes.

Among the problems and questions raised by teachers when the honor-school classes are discussed are the following:

1. Are the differences in ability reflected in the achievement of these pupils in subject areas?
2. How should these pupils be rated? Should there be a normal distribution of marks for the honor-school class as a unit, or should the median be shifted toward the upper end of the distribution?
3. How much work should teachers expect from honor-school pupils in comparison with non-honor-school pupils?

The present study was undertaken to answer these questions for one subject area, chemistry. The author taught one class of honor-school pupils and one of non-honor-school pupils in Chemistry I. The assignments for the two groups were identical, the lessons, demonstrations, laboratory, drill, review, development, supervised study, etc., were taught from the same lesson plans.

The same assigned readings, reports, projects, and illustrations were used with both groups. In other words as many of the possible variables as were under the control of the teacher were made constants. The one important difference was the ability of the pupils in the two classes.

To determine the relative achievements of the groups we prepared a series of short-answer tests on the important units of elementary chemistry. The twenty-five questions on each test included a variety of types of items, e.g., completion, identification of apparatus, problems, formulas, equations, matching. Each item was pretested for ambiguity and possible alternative correct answers. Both groups had the same time allowance, which was long enough to permit all pupils time to try each item. The same model answers were used for both groups. Neither group was informed of the experiment to avoid an artificial stimulus to study. The tests were administered in mimeographed form carefully proofread and printed to avoid the necessity for explanations or questions that might give hints of correct answers.

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To maintain the validity of the tests the questions were based on the contents of the New York State Syllabus for Chemisry and the content of widely used textbooks.

Tables I and II compare the results for six of the units used in the comparison: e.g. Oxygen, Hydrogen, Water, Bases, Chlorine, Carbon.

TABLE I

Unit	Oxygen		Hydrogen		Water	
Class	Honor School	Regular Class	Honor School	Regular Class	Honor School	Regular Class
Range	70-100	45-95	72-100	52-100	64-100	52-100
Distribution	Number / Per cent	Number / Per cent	Number / Per cent	Number / Per cent	Number / Per cent	Number / Per cent
95-100	7 / 23	2 / 5	20 / 27	8 / 23	15 / 47	7 / 18
85-94	12 / 39	11 / 31	7 / 23	10 / 29	11 / 34	10 / 27
75-84	10 / 32	13 / 36	2 / 7	12 / 34	5 / 16	11 / 30
65-74	2 / 6	5 / 14	1 / 3	4 / 11	0 / 0	5 / 14
45-64	0 / 0	5 / 14	0 / 0	1 / 3	1 / 3	4 / 11
0-44	0 / 0	0 / 0	0 / 0	0 / 0	0 / 0	0 / 0
Totals	31 / 100	36 / 100	30 / 100	35 / 100	32 / 100	37 / 100

TABLE II

Unit	Bases		Chlorine		Carbon	
Class	Honor School	Regular Class	Honor School	Regular Class	Honor School	Regular Class
Range	60-100	12-92	64-100	36-92	60-100	28-98
Distribution	Number / Per cent	Number / Per cent	Number / Per cent	Number / Per cent	Number / Per cent	Number / Per cent
95-100	8 / 25	0 / 0	18 / 57	2 / 6	12 / 38	3 / 8
85-94	9 / 28	5 / 15	10 / 31	8 / 23	11 / 34	3 / 8
75-84	12 / 38	7 / 21	3 / 9	12 / 34	5 / 16	13 / 36
65-74	1 / 3	8 / 23	0 / 0	5 / 14	2 / 6	12 / 33
45-64	2 / 6	9 / 25	1 / 3	7 / 20	2 / 6	4 / 12
0-44	0 / 0	5 / 15	0 / 0	1 / 3	0 / 0	1 / 3
Total	32 / 100	34 / 100	32 / 100	35 / 100	32 / 100	36 / 100

An analysis of the results indicates that the honor-school pupils do superior work. They have acquired and retained a greater knowledge of the factual content of the first term's work in chemistry. They have a greater ability to apply their learnings to problem situations, e.g., rules of valence in formula writing and forecasting results in equation writing. In addition, they have greater ability to apply laws and generalizations and to analyze and solve problems.

An analysis of the total number of grades earned by both groups reveals the following information. In the honor-school class, 96% of the ratings were passing, 65% or better. In the non-honor-school class, 83% of the ratings were over 65%. Seventy-four percent of the honor-school ratings were 85% or better, while only 32% of the regular group were over 85%. The highest ratings 95-100 were attained by 42% of the honor-school pupils while only 10% of the other group were above 95%.

The results apparently answer some of our questions.

1. *Are the differences in pupil ability reflected in their achievement in subject areas?* The answer based upon tabulation of scores in tables I and II is definitely *"Yes."*

2. *Should the mean of the ratings be shifted toward right for the honor school group?* Based on achievement in comparison with the second group the answer again must be, *"Yes."* If the honor-school pupils are rated on a normal distribution for their own group, they are working at a disadvantage, for those whose rating are lowest for the group will, as a result, receive lower ratings than pupils of comparable ability in the non-honor group. Ratings are very real to present-day boys and girls who are competing for admission to crowded colleges. If we as teachers rate them lower than their less-gifted fellow students who are not in honor classes, we are inadvertently and automatically eliminating from college many of our more able students.

3. *How much additional work can teachers demand of honor-school students?* The answer to this question must of necessity depend upon the guiding philosophy of the honor school. To keep the achievement quotient of these students high we should expect them to do more than the students in non-honor-school classes. This increased achievement may be intensive or extensive in nature. They may be expected to know more about the same syllabus content, or through the medium of projects, visits, directed reading, etc., go beyond the limits of the syllabus to increase the scope of their knowledge of the subject.

It is evident from the results of this study that the superior ability of the honor-class pupils is reflected in their achievement in chemistry. It is the author's belief that their ratings should reflect their superior achievement in relation to the other pupils. At the same time they must be made to work up to their limits of their potential ability if they are to be trained as our future leaders. The importance

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of working the superior students to the limits of their ability is noted in the closing section of the PRINCETON REPORT (p. 31). *"It has been our encouraging discovery to find that the raising of standards tends to call into action the capacities, enthusiasm, and energy of the undergraduates."*

L. J. FLIEDNER James Monroe High School

A COURSE FOR PARENTS

Many teachers have discovered that parents are often too ill-informed of the school's purposes and routine procedures to be of much assistance in solving student problems. Forest Hills High School has offered a "Course for Parents" for the past two terms to help correct this situation. The course brings the community and the school more closely together and develops in the parents a fuller appreciation of what the school tries to do. We may then expect their fullest cooperation on school problems as they arise.

EXPERIMENTAL LECTURES. The idea of a course for parents was suggested by the success we have had with the civics course. As taught at Forest Hills, civics is an orientation course in which the entering student is acquainted with his new environment and the problems he will face. It was a natural extension of this idea to acquaint the parents with the same material. To test the interest and willingness of parents to attend a course, two experimental lectures were givn in June of 1945. These lectures seemed to interest some of the parents and a full course was planned for the next term.

CONTENT. As given in the fall of 1945 the course consisted of seven lectures, each designed to take up one of the most important phases of high school life. The topics were as follows:

Lecture 1—THE ORGANIZATION OF FOREST HILLS HIGH SCHOOL—Rules and Regulations.
Lecture 2—THE GUIDANCE SERVICES OF THE SCHOOL—Planning the Student's Program—Requirements for Graduation.
Lecture 3—SCHOLARSHIP AND HONORS—Reports to Parents—the Arista.
Lecture 4—THE EXTRA-CURRICULAR PROGRAM — The Role of Student Government in a Democracy—Opportunities for Service.

Lecture 5—STUDENT RECORDS—Their Meaning and Use.
Lecture 6—STUDENT HEALTH—Health Records and Health Services.
Lecture 7—THE ADOLESCENT BOY AND GIRL—A Challenge to the School and the Parent—Closing Exercises of the Course.

INVITATIONS. We invited the parents of first, second, and third term students to attend the first course, as it was felt that they would have the most to gain from it. When the course was repeated in the Spring of 1946, only the parents of incoming students were invited, although any parent was welcome to attend. We expect to continue this policy of inviting parents of first-termers.

The invitations were distributed through the official section classes with a request for a reply. In the spring term about 400 invitations were sent out; about 230 replies were received, with 106 stating they would attend. Actually, 54 parents registered and attended at least one session. Average attendance ran about 40 parents at each lecture. In the light of potential numbers, the ten percent attendance might seem low. However, those in charge of the course felt that the effort was worth while. We must recognize the diverse home responsibilities which would prevent many parents from coming to school regularly. Eventually the school can expect to have 300-400 well-informed parents as a nucleus for improved parent-teacher relationships.

PROCEDURE. The course met on Wednesdays during two periods of the school day. Sessions lasted one hour, forty-five minutes being devoted to the topic of the day and the remaining fifteen minutes being used for a question period. The cooperation of different members of the faculty made it possible to have a first-hand presentation of the work in which they were specialists. The health services and the guidance services of the school, for example, were explained by the respective chairmen of these departments.

VARIETY OF APPROACH. We took the opportunity to demonstrate several "teaching techniques" in conveying the information to the parents. In addition to the usual lectures, a forum, reports by selected students, an interview, a motion picture, and a lecture involving the use of the opaque projector were all experienced by the parents. It was pointed out that these were some of the modern techniques that the high schools were using in the classroom. Mime-

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ographed outlines of each lecture were given out, so a large amount of information could be presented in a brief time.

As part of the seventh session of the course those parents who had attended four or more of the seven lectures were awarded an appropriate certificate. More important, the parent's attendance at the course was recorded on the permanent record card of the student involved. When the record is consulted during the remainder of his school career, we will know that the parent has, or should have, a better-than-average background on school matters.

RESULTS. At the conclusion of the course parents were asked to fill out a brief questionnaire. Their comments indicated:

1. A very real appreciation of the opportunity to learn at first hand of the work the school is doing. They welcomed the information, which came from us, rather than relying entirely on the reports (often incorrect) from their sons and daughters.
2. The parents stressed that their sons and daughters were greatly interested in the course. The increased knowledge of the parent provoked worth-while discussions of the school's work.

The teachers of the school welcomed the idea that their work was being explained more fully to parents. We expect to receive real dividends in the form of greatly improved public relations. Some of our potential "Problem Cases" will be avoided. Where a problem does develop, the school administration and teachers may expect a greater apperceptive background on the part of the home. There has been some evidence of this greater understanding even in the two terms the course has been offered. As a greater proportion of the parental community acquires this experience, the work of the school should receive increasingly sympathetic cooperation.

ROBERT L. MCINDOE Forest Hills High School

Books

Vocational Opportunities for Foreign Language Students. By Theodore Huebener. National Federation of Modern Language Teachers. 1946, Pp. 32. 30c.

In an age when dollars and cents are considered a respectable criterion for the pursuit of knowledge, the subject matter specialists who no longer live in ivory towers keep pace with the times by providing answers to inquiring parents and students in terms of job opportunities.

Vocational Opportunities for Foreign Language Students is an informative and up-to-date bulletin published by the National Federation of Modern Language Teachers. The first edition appeared in 1941 under the editorship of a committee which included the late Lawrence A. Wilkins. The second revision is the result of the efforts of six foreign language authorities, each representing one of the following languages: French, German, Italian, Spanish, Slavic Languages and Portuguese. To the chairman of the committee Dr. Theodore Huebener, Director of Foreign Languages in New York City, was delegated the task of collecting and assembling the material.

Dr. Huebener's introduction provides a rapid survey of the mounting popular interest in language study that started during World War II. After describing the political, economic and cultural changes which characterize our present-day outlook he concludes that expansion of trade and the deepening influence of the United States will increase the vocational opportunities for young men and women who are equipped with a foreign language or two.

The needs of business and industry, civil service, educational institutions and a variety of vocations are honestly weighed in terms of present practices and requirements. It is good guidance to let the student read what business executives have to say about acquiring competency in a foreign language. It is even better guidance to state unequivocally that in most cases the knowledge of the language is a secondary asset. Most people are hired in business capacities primarily because of their specific technical training.

All this is clearly stated by Dr. Huebener. However, it is equally obvious from the evidence he presents that many fields of endeavor which have a strong appeal for youth today, such as advertising, aviation, broadcasting, engineering, foreign trade, international relations, and journalism, are better served by personnel whose qualifications include the knowledge of a foreign language.

Vocational uses for language training in research fields still continue: medicine, library work, scholarly research. With reference to medical research German and French, and to some extent Italian, are important. Because of recent extremely valuable contributions by Russian doctors their language will also play a role in medical annals. In the field of tropical medicine important contributions are being made in Spanish. Similarly, literature is accumulating in Portuguese because of extensive experimentation conducted in Brazil with anti-toxins against snake and insect bite.

The section devoted to opportunities for teaching foreign languages provides much interesting data. Not only do the figures on enrollments indicate

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a wide interest in foreign languages, but this interest is felt on all school levels down to the earliest grades. In Louisiana, for example, French is taught in the elementary schools, while the grade schools of many communities in Texas, New Mexico and California offer Spanish. Moreover, in various parts of the country large numbers of children are enrolled in languages such as Polish, Russian, Norse, Swedish and Portuguese. In addition some of these tongues are now included in the area studies offered by an increasing number of colleges as well as Chinese and Japanese. This heightened interest in cultural backgrounds and the new impetus given to world-mindedness have made school administrators more conscious of the need for language teachers. There is room for them in the lower schools and secondary schools, in colleges and universities.

Vocational Opportunities for Foreign Language Students belongs on the table of every guidance office. The chart, prepared by the faculty of the Champaign Senior High School, Illinois, and reproduced in Dr. Huebener's pamphlet, belongs on the bulletin board.

RENÉE J. FULTON — Forest Hills High School

Juvenile Delinquency and the School. By William C. Kvaraceus, World Book Company, Yonkers.

This book is the culmination of a study for the requirement of a doctorate dissertation at Harvard University. The author, as director of the Children's Bureau, Passaic, New Jersey, traces the history and development of the city's plan for the prevention and control of juvenile delinquency. The statistics presented testify to the merits of this community's undertaking because reports of the Federal Bureau of Investigation, while recording a slight increase in the crime rate among youthful offenders for the state as a whole, nevertheless show a decrease of 25 percent in Passaic during the interim, 1937 to 1941.

The plan is unique in that the work of the school, police and recreational agencies seem to dovetail perfectly. Recognizing the fact that the school handles all the children, thereby gaining direct entrance into the home, the authorities of the city delegated the executive authority to the Assistant Superintendent of Schools in charge of Guidance, Research Curriculum and Director of the Children's Bureau. The various heads of other city departments and welfare agencies, cognizant of the need for cooperative endeavors in the prevention and control of juvenile delinquency, subjugated their respective powers to the director so that needless repetition and overlapping of services in the many fields of rehabilitation and therapeutic endeavors were eliminated. Emphasis was placed upon the early referral of potential delinquency in a community because of the variability of the causative factors, themselves. This last type of referral comes only when an agency such as Child Bureau has assumed a position of esteem and respect in the community, and apparently this has happened in that city. Other committees are inclined to be lax in following up overt acts of misbehavior, particularly

among young children. It is this type of child to whom the bureau directs its immediate attention.

The system of screening delinquent youngsters as described by the author, is direct and thorough. The addition of professionally trained workers, so essential for the maximum efficiency of any such bureau, is mentioned with an overall picture of the duties and function of each member of the bureau. The book is replete with forms of value to the reader such as; referral blanks, social profile cards and appraisal of community progress.

In analysing the causes of delinquency in Passaic the writer discusses briefly with examples the interaction of factors which are the determinants of abnormal behavior such as prenatal and early influences, socio-economic conditions, character-training institutions, inherent personality of the child, and frustrating factors in the school. He insists that the schools must meet the challenge and lists the objectives set by Passaic Educational authorities.

Realizing that no system can adequately meet the problems of delinquency in a community because of the variability of the causative factors, the author discusses the relative merits and shortcoming of other plans, such as coordinating councils, council of social agencies and neighborhood councils.

After reading this book one may ask—"Is the system of prevention and control in my city, town or village operating at maximum efficiency?"

WALTER E. O. LEARY

Brandeis: A Free Man's Life. By Alpheus Thomas Mason, Professor of Politics, Princeton University. Published by The Viking Press. Reviewed by Theodore Fred Kuper.

A teacher spent over ten years in the preparation of a biography of the late Justice Brandeis which has now been published. Alpheus Thomas Mason, Professor of Politics at Princeton University, based his work upon many personal interviews with the Justice before and after his retirement. The author studied "the room full of Brandeis papers at the University of Louisville." He had access to private and official records and a vast amount of material. He corresponded and conferred freely with relatives, friends and co-workers. In fact, this is the third volume on Brandeis from Professor Mason's pen. In 1933, he published "Brandeis: Lawyer and Judge in the Modern State," and five years later, "The Brandeis Way."

Professor Mason tells the story of the quest of freedom by the immigrant parents who were among the "Forty-eighters" who fled from despotism of Europe to the welcoming shores of our American democracy. There are interesting chapters on the youth's schooling in the Middle West, back on the continent, and finally at the Harvard Law School. The author traces the New England influence on this youth and the gradual development of what is aptly described as "the Brandeis way of life and law." There is a wealth of material in this volume for teachers and students interested in the political and industrial development of our nation during the "Progressive Era" and the two World Wars.

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For twenty years Brandeis served as "the people's lawyer" fighting monopoly, inefficiency and dishonesty in the management of railroads in public utilities and in high public office. He accepted no fees for this public service, but he gained a fast-growing crop of bitter enemies. The harvest of this opposition was paraded before the nation in the unprecedented attack on Woodrow Wilson's nomination of Brandeis to the Supreme Court. In the light of the record following the appointment of Brandeis, there is much food for thought in reading the pages dealing with the anti-appointment fight that raged for months in and out of Washington,—in the open and behind the back.

In describing the scene in the Supreme Court when Brandeis, then 59 years of age, assumed his seat as Associate Justice, Professor Mason records the interesting comment of two women spectators. One said, "What a beautiful face the new Justice has!" The other woman remarked, "I am about to see a Jew on the Supreme Court of my country for the first time." On this historic occasion, the oath of office was administered to Brandeis, a Jew, by Chief Justice White, a Catholic, and among the Associate Justices present, was Brandeis's lifelong friend, Oliver Wendell Holmes, a Protestant. When Brandeis was being attacked during the fight in the Senate, Walter Lippmann wrote Brandeis that he had dined with Justice Holmes "and he spoke of you with such affection and admiration that I came home extremely happy."

Upon assuming his duties as Associate Justice, Brandeis resigned from membership on the New York Conciliation Council for the Garment Trades, to which he had been appointed by Mayor Mitchell. Brandeis had rendered yeoman service in the development of democracy in the garment trades. He resigned from all public or private connections that might interfere in any way with his official duties. He even declined to accept appointment by President Wilson as head of a commission to settle Mexican border difficulties.

The record of Brandeis as Associate Justice of our Supreme Court for nearly a quarter of a century, is a vital part of the history of the United States. It is interestingly related in the pages of this biography. At the age of 82, Brandeis retired from the bench. The Chief Justice and all the Associates joined in an affectionate letter of farewell, praising his years of service, rendered with "a vigor and devotion which has never been surpassed." The same "vigor and devotion" which had created his enemies in the earlier years, finally won for him an endless line of those who learned to see "his beautiful face" and to appreciate his service to the American people and to humanity.

Brandeis supported President Theodore Roosevelt's condemnation of "hyphenated Americanism." He told an audience at the New Century Club, "This country demands that its sons and daughters, whatever their race—however intense or diverse their religious connections—be politically merely American citizens." And he added, "To classify man according to their religious beliefs (is) inconsistent with the American ideal of brotherhood, and (is) disloyal." This philosophy did not stand in the way of his devotion

to the cause of Zionism. "Every Irish-American who contributed towards advancing home rule was a better man and a better American for the sacrifice he made. Every American Jew who aids in advancing the Jewish settlement in Palestine, though he feel that neither he nor his descendants will ever be there, will likewise be a better man and a better American for doing so." This was part of his classic address on "Zionism and Patriotism."

Professor Mason tells how in the darkest days of the Second World War, Brandeis wrote to a friend, "The dictators are having their fling now, but democracies will again have their day." Less than six months before his death, in the face of German victories, Brandeis still had faith. "This is the time to stand firm and resolute," he told a friend. "We must not waver or yield one iota of our position. Assuming that the Germans will do their worst, invade and destroy and obliterate part of what we have created, they cannot destroy Jewish ideals and aspirations with regard to Palestine. There are 500,000 Jews in Palestine now, but there are millions of others prepared to go, when the time comes, and to continue the work. It has been established that the Jews require a state of their own for their continued existence. The Germans have established that fact. The Jews have established their capacity to build such a state. That is the essential ground work for the future effort."

No wonder that Franklin D. Roosevelt, from The White House, was addressing Brandeis affectionately, *"My dear Isaiah."* Brandeis had established his place as a great American prophet. Upon his death, less than a month before his 85th birthday, the New York *Times* editorially described him as "one of our elder statesmen and philosophers, truly cast in the American mold, deeply, even mystically, infused with the American spirit."

THEODORE FRED KUPER

Books for You, A High School Reading List Arranged by Themes and Types. Chicago, National Council of Teachers of English, 1945. 154 pp. $.30 each; ten or more $.22 each.

Librarians and teachers of English will be interested in this new supplementary reading list for high schools. It is a revision of *Books for Home Reading,* published in 1937. As in the earlier list, each title has a brief descriptive note. A number after the title indicates the grade level for which the book is recommended. There are no bibliographic details, since the list is intended as a guide for students. Nevertheless, librarians will find it a useful aid in book selection.

Approximately 2,000 titles are included. These have been arranged in eleven groups, further subdivided into fiction, biography, plays, etc. The largest section is Other Lands and Other Peoples (350 titles), the shortest Arts for a Full Life (63 titles). It must have proved troublesome fitting some titles to appropriate headings. Hilton's *Lost Horizon,* for example, is found among vocational books under the heading The World at Work and S. V. Benet's poem *Burning City* is in the group headed Understanding

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Nature. Guiterman's *Brave Laughter* is found on page 37 under The Individual and His Environment while his *Lyric Laughter* is on page 73 under The Well-Being of Others.

These are minor criticisms. A real weakness of the list, however, is that it fails to exploit the major interests of adolescent readers. The Romance and Adventure section could have been expanded considerably. Sports books and mysteries are scarce. There are only 34 titles in the group Hobbies and Sports, and this includes two on skiing and one on the pottery of the American Indian. Surefire titles such as *Lou Gehrig* and *The New York Yankees* by Graham and *The St. Louis Cardinals* and *Connie Mack* by Lieb would improve this section. In the field of mystery stories, there are none of the standard items by Christie, Rinehart or Ellery Queen. Some teachers may contend that these authors do little to elevate an individual's reading level. But it is not the good reader who presents a problem in reading guidance. He finds his way around the library on his own. It is the poor reader who needs to be lured into the enjoyment of reading by the inclusion of titles of immediate appeal.

Books for You is also somewhat conservative in the selection of war books. The number of titles in this category may have been limited in order to exclude material of merely topical interest. Or perhaps it is because few books published after 1944 have been included. Whatever the reason, there is certainly room for John Hersey and Ernie Pyle on any high school reading list. Neither of these two authors is represented in this list. One wonders too what happened to such popular classics as *Uncle Tom's Cabin, Tom Sawyer, Captains Courageous* and the novels of H. G. Wells.

The list of authors and titles at the end needs correction and revision. The alphabetical filing is inaccurate and in some instances there are omissions of either author's names or titles of books.

Aside from these few failings, *Books for You* is a basic tool, recommended to all concerned with reading problems in the high school. It is a helpful list, especially for the section headed This is our America. It is certainly the most comprehensive list of books for recreational reading available to high school students. For those who are interested, there are comparable lists on the elementary, junior high and college levels.

MARTIN ROSSOFF

Occupational Information. By Carroll L. Shartle. Published by Prentice-Hall, Inc., New York, 1946.

Occupations, A Selected List of Pamphlets. By Gertrude Forrester. Published by the H. W. Wilson Company, New York, 1946.

A Vocational Guide For Women. By L. Corelius Longarzo. Published by the Catholic Youth Organization of the Archdiocese of New York, Incorporated, 1945.

Because of the close relationship between accurate and complete occupational information and sound vocational guidance, it is encouraging to note

the recent appearance of three books helpful in locating and using occupational materials. Increased output and change make it extremely important to distinguish between what is best and second best for one's purposes. The three books under discussion should prove useful to schools interested in building up a functioning vocational library.

The publisher's blurb about Dr. Shartle's book is as true as it is unoriginal, for it is indeed the book about occupations for which the counselor and teacher of classes in occupations "have been waiting." *Occupational Information* is the result of extensive experience *"with more than* 20,000 *establishments and over* 100,000 *workers who cooperated with the author and his colleagues in developing occupational information and in devising various methods for its preparation and use."* It is a basic book which gives insight into the broader aspects of occupational information, introducing the reader to the process of obtaining and using occupational data as well as to the data themselves. The book abounds in concrete information illustrative of principles. Counselors will find particularly useful among the eleven chapters those on "Occupational Families," the classification of occupations based on one or more characteristics that provides such excellent motivation for occupational study; "Entry Fields of Work," that half of all occupations which does not require previous experience as an entrance requirement and which therefore constitutes so important a group for use by counselors in relating the personal qualifications of boys and girls to their occupational counterparts.

Counselors of veterans and handicapped will get an enormous amount of help from "Military to Civilian Occupations" and "Jobs for the Handicapped."

But if this reviewer were permitted to take to the proverbial atoll just one chapter, she would without hesitation select "Current and Future Occupational and Future Occupational Opportunities" for its wealth of wisdom in pointing out the limitations of vocational guidance and for its nine practical aids to the use of employment information. This chapter is a fitting conclusion to a comprehensive treatment of occupational information that no modern school can afford to overlook.

Dr. Forrester's book limits itself to pamphlet materials on occupations and in this respect supplements Shartle's broader discussion. *"The first requisite of a bibliography of pamphlets on occupations is comprehensiveness"* and *"second, to be effective, the bibliography should cite only monographs that follow accepted principles in the presentation of information"* says Dr. Forrester. The result of her effort to meet these requirements is a listing of pamphlets on occupations which can be relied upon not only to enlarge but also and more important to improve the quality of that most important, popular, and inexpensive source of occupational information—the occupational pamphlet file. Through intensive research the author has brought to light 1500 pamphlets which meet the criteria of authenticity, objectivity, recency, suitability, availability, information not found elsewhere, cost (265 free pamphlets are listed), references to further reading, style, and format.

The bulk of the book is happily devoted to the bibliography itself, which is helpfully annotated and includes Pamphlets Listed by Occupations, Infor-

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mation about Several Occupations, Apprenticeship, Charts and Posters, Choosing a Career, Occupations for the Handicapped, and Seeking the Job. Librarians will get excellent practical suggestions for arranging an occupational pamphlet file from Part II devoted to "Indexing and Filing Pamphlets on Occupations." Teachers of English, Social Studies, and Orientation classes will get excellent advice in a nutshell from Part IV on the use of the annotated bibliography. The publisher of this book may well have said of this as of Shartle's book that librarians and counselors have long been awaiting it.

Mr. Longarzo's book is a revised edition of a mimeographed monograph issued in 1944. It *"attempts to utilize and incorporate the suggestions, comments and criticisms of school and public librarians, publishers and vocational counselors"* to whom the monograph was presented. The guide is a bibliography of selected references for vocations for women which brings together the sources of vocational material on hand in the public libraries in Manhattan and the Bronx. The references for 2879 occupations are classified according to the headings of the *Basic Outline for the Contents of a Good Occupational Monograph* which was published in 1940 by the Occupational Research Section of the National Vocational Guidance Association. An unusual system of Roman and Arabic numerals indicates the various types of references for each occupation. The annotated list of general occupational sources, which gives federal and state agencies, trade, technical, and professional periodicals and organizations, and other miscellaneous sources, will be particularly helpful to those new to the field of occupationalogy.

ELSA G. BECKER

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The Pike Street Gang Incident

EMANUEL EDWARD BLEICH
Metropolitan Vocational High School

There has never been interracial tension or conflict *within* Metropolitan Vocational High School. In October, 1945, however, several Negro boys from Metropolitan Vocational High School were attacked by members of a neighborhood gang—"The Pike Street Gang." Recognizing that such eruptions express accumulated resentment which may easily form the basis for more extensive disturbances, Dr. Franklin J. Keller of Metropolitan Vocational High School suggested that Mr. Emanuel Edward Bleich, who had been working at the school for several years on the problem of intercultural cooperation, cooperate with the personnel of the Jacob A. Riis Neighborhood Settlement in setting up a program aimed at removing intercultural and interracial tensions between Metropolitan Vocational High School and the neighborhood. Mr. Bleich's report follows.

It was decided to bring the conflicting groups together, if that were possible, in order that they might themselves elaborate a plan of intercultural collaboration. Accordingly, the following meetings were held, with the results indicated. Before we enter upon our main theme, however, three points must be clarified.

One: This paper intends to show the mechanism by which the group in question was organized, and does not treat of the drama of interpersonal relationships involved in such an organization.

Two: There has never been interracial tension or conflict within Metropolitan Vocational High School.

Three: The measures outlined herein are preventive and not curative. The plans and procedures herein listed aim at eliminating tensions and preventing flare-ups and misunderstandings.

It is because we are mainly concerned with the process of forming such a group, that we have stopped our account at the point where the group seems able to continue on its own steam.

FIRST MEETING. Dr. Keller called Miss Helene Nelson, director of the Jacob A. Riis Neighborhood Settlement, to assist him in determining the cause of the trouble and to aid the school in improving the relations between the groups.

Since the Jacob A. Riis Neighborhood Settlement is in the very heart of the neighborhood where the "Pike Street Gang" operates, Miss Nelson knew at once the names and addresses of the boys who

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would be involved. She contacted these boys immediately through the able assistance of the Boys' Workers of the Settlement, Mr. Charles Centrella and Mr. Fred Presti.

Two days after the attack took place, the school and the settlement summoned their resources and organized their facilities for a very important first meeting at which the following were present:

1. Several members of the "Pike Street Gang" who were involved in the attack.
2. Several Negro students who had been attacked.
3. Dr. Keller.
4. Miss Helen Nelson.
5. Mr. Roger William Riis, Secretary of the Board of Managers of the Jacob A. Riis Neighborhood Settlement.
6. Sergeant Michael B. Atkins, an interested resident of the community.
7. Mrs. Ruby Hurley, Youth Secretary, National Association for the Advancement of Colored People.
8. Mr. Charles Centrella.
9. Mr. Fred Presti.
10. Mr. Hilton L. Mayers, Boys' Work Secretary, Harlem YMCA.
11. Mother Mary Elizabeth, Madonna House.

The cause of the trouble was sought. After each group recriminated the other, both groups heard several democratic points of view expressed by those people present who were interested in fostering good human relations. The result of this first meeting:

1. Both groups promised future good behavior and indicated their sincerity by leaving their names for the formation of a council.
2. Dr. Keller enlisted the assistance of a social studies teacher of the school to act as a close liaison between the school and the community.
3. The teacher spoke to the general organization of the school (75 student representatives of approximately 1800 students) at their weekly meeting apprising them of the situation, and asked for volunteers to assist him in a project of fostering good human relations. Several Negro representatives of the general organization volunteered to participate at a second meeting at Riis House.

SECOND MEETING. The Negro boys who had been attacked by some of the members of the "Pike Street Gang," the officers of the

General Organization and some of its members, Miss Nelson, and Mr. Bleich, the Good Human Relations Counselor, were present. The issue was put directly to those attending: *Are we going to stand by and observe this evil, anti-democratic behavior grow, or shall we do something definite to foster good human relations?* Some excellent suggestions were made. On the basis of these it was decided:

1. To establish a permanent council consisting of representatives from Metropolitan Vocational High School together with representatives of the groups who participate in Riis House activities.
2. To invite guest speakers.
3. To invite members of Riis House to the Metropolitan Vocational High School Evening Assembly Functions.
4. To invite the representatives of the Fathers' Club of Riis House to join the permanent council.
5. To extend invitations to the leaders of the neighborhood groups to visit the different shops and see that within Metropolitan students of all races and religions mingle without tension. The above suggestions were directed at setting up situations in which good will might stimulate good social behavior. This was the foundation for the important third meeting.

THIRD MEETING. Some who had participated in the original fracas and a few additional students who were becoming interested in the project were present at the third meeting. The direction and the controls were beginning to be determined by the youngsters. One boy discussed the fight between the two groups.

A girl said, "There is no need for this. We are all the same kids. We want the same things out of life. We ought to understand each other."

Another participant, pointing to the possibilities of further trouble, suggested that a council should be formed to consist of representatives from Riis House and Metropolitan. If trouble should arise, they would obtain the facts and arbitrate differences. The boys from Riis House suggested that they would like to compete with our athletic teams (basketball, softball, swimming, etc.). Meanwhile additional suggestions were made which aimed to foster better relationships. The area of activity broadened. Riis House consented to the use of its gymnasium for a Saturday Evening Dance, and volunteered to open its doors afternoons and evenings to our boys.

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They promised to obtain qualified instructors to teach our boys boxing. The Negro students volunteered to entertain the settlement at the next meeting. The basketball coach of Metropolitan Vocational High School, informed of the set-up, said that he would prepare his boys for a basektball game and be willing to teach swimming to some of the boys from Riis House. At the same time the General Organization of Metropolitan was kept informed at its weekly meeting of the progress being made. Since each of the 75 sections in the school has a G.O. representative, the 1700 students of the school were also kept informed. *"Rapport having been established between the Riis House groups and the students of Metropolitan Vocational High School, the original tension was dissolving in an honest attempt at cooperation."*

FOURTH MEETING—GETTING TOGETHER. At this session the participation broadened and interest became deeper and friendlier. This is what happened: first, in the basketball game Metropolitan Vocational High School lost to Riis House by a score of 29 to 31. Two of our Negro boys participated in this game. Then there was a musical entertainment with three of our Negro boys playing the piano and singing for the younger children present. Third, the discussion meeting was devoted to building close acquaintanceships and to seeking common ground. Students representing Metropolitan Vocational High School indicated they wished to be considered good neighbors of Riis House especially since Metropolitan is part of the immediate community. The school G. O. president pointed out that he represented 1700 students who could help Riis House achieve such of its objectives for the neighborhood; for instance, additional recreational space, a swimming pool, and other improvements. Another student speaking on the courses given at Metropolitan invited those present to visit our shops. The question then arose as to Metropolitan's objectives in coming to Riis House. This was answered by another speaker who mentioned two important aims:

1. To establish friendly relations with the people in the neighborhood.
2. To expose and refute the rumors of racial friction.

One of the settlement workers took the floor and advanced the idea that the boys and girls at Riis House can no longer live in a state of isolation; that only through knowledge of what settlement

houses and schools are doing in other neighborhoods can Riis House be aided to improve the conditions in the immediate community. A member of Riis House proposed: one, that a youth council be set up consisting of representatives from different neighborhood settlement houses and from Metropolitan Vocational High School to meet once a month to discuss, and thereafter to act upon, ideas which would help combat anti-social acts and would promote better understanding among different races and religions; two, that the subject matter discussed at the council meeting is not to be artificially limited. If, for example, it is found necessary, juvenile delinquency and methods of combating it will be discussed. The meeting was adjourned.

Once again the G. O. representatives carried a full report to their sections. The school newspaper reported on the meeting. The faculty was kept informed. Now that the danger spot had been located, the racial trouble was being neutralized. Prejudice was beginning to disappear in the solvent of close acquaintanceship. Our progress was encouraging.

FIFTH MEETING. Good will spirals upward as more people realize the possibility of decent racial relations and act accordingly. Favorable publicity brought 200 young people to attend a dance given under the joint auspices of Metropolitan Vocational High School and Riis House. The group at this dance was approximately equally divided between Negro and white. For the first time the boys and girls from Riis House observed the behavior of this new group in their midst. Nor did they find this behavior any different from their own. All were interested in having a good time and the band from Metropolitan helped to promote it. Five faculty members indicated their professional devotion and their sense of social responsibility by attending this function. In addition, a community-conscious citizen who was present showed a keen interest in the whole activity. He had for two years been chairman of the Third Precinct Coordinating Council, and is a member of the American Legion. His influence for good human relations was important.

A basketball game was played. This time the boys from Metropolitan won. Then a meeting of the youth representing all groups was held. It was pointed out at this meeting that the leading and the direction for the last four meetings had been done to a large extent by the personnel of Riis House and the Good Human Relations Counselor from Metropolitan. But now the time was ripe for the

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youth group to run the entire project for themselves. The faculty could now stand by and furnish occasional guidance. A motion was passed to establish a youth council and to elect officers at the next meeting.

SIXTH MEETING. Temporary officers for a youth council were elected by secret ballot and a constitutional committee was appointed. A definite date, time and place to meet were set, indicating that the youth were beginning to take things into their own hands and seriously intended to function by themselves. It was pointed out that representatives from Metropolitan High School and from Riis House were initialing the project and would act as a "steering unit." The intention was to make ever-widening points of contact to include representation from:

1. The Henry Street Settlement
2. Madonna House
3. Churches in the Neighborhood
4. Police Coordinating Council
5. Independent Social Clubs
6. Veterans' Groups

After these groups have been enlisted, an election will be held to elect permanent officers.

CONCLUSION. These six meetings reveal the mobilization of school and community resources in order to re-establish harmonious relations between two racial groups. Let us analyze the factors contributing to the whole process in order to determine whether the primary objectives in resolving the issues are being attained. If the sore spot in this community conflict has been located, if democratic attitudes are being developed, if the racial tension is being dissolved in the crucible of experience and mutual acquaintanceship, if preventive measures are being well organized, then success can be claimed. Perhaps the whole project will give heart to other schools and communities to venture before the issue of racial conflict is thrust upon them.

Riis House and Metropolitan Vocational High School have begun to dedicate themselves to use their total resources to cooperate actively with other social agencies and groups. It is their hope that more effective ways of working together will be discovered to improve the relationship between school and community.

The community concept must be broadened because today there is an ever-increasing movement from smaller to larger spatial units. The school and the community must, as far as possible, be able to act together in solving specific leisure, school and delinquency problems involving the public good, and to seek increasingly to democratize life in school and outside. To go forth alone in an enterprise which ideally and practically calls for cooperation is folly.

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An Analysis of Special Classes for Truants

HARRY E. WOLFSON
Brooklyn High School for Specialty Trades

I. The Problem

It is recognized generally that a problem of truancy exists in the secondary schools. A particular segment of the school population remains significantly unaffected with the ordinary stimulation provided by these schools. It is further recognized that truancy is a complex problem which has its roots in a ramified background of causes and developments. It is no direct criticism of the schools that truancy exists. The modern secondary school now includes pupils with abilities and attitudes of such heterogeneity as did not exist a few decades ago. Pupils are now in attendance who would ordinarily not have gone on to the high schools in previous years. The prevailing concept of modern education is clear in its position that not only can every pupil profit from high school attendance, but that it is the primary mission of these schools to prepare everyone, regardless of ability or attitude, for living in a democratic society.

The truant is part of a significant group of pupils who never did like school and who do not like it now as they see it. For many reasons relating to individual, family, and community causes they have developed poor habits which militate against their successful inclusion within the normal school population. Such a marginal group has always existed and too much concern over truants was not evidenced in the past. The war and its postwar implications have, however, crystallized the idea that we must not countenance the existence of a group of "malcontents" who will grow up and take their place in society inadequately prepared or orientated in the workings of democracy. Not all truants make poor risks for adult democratic participation. Many do achieve respectable and competent citizenship. The responsibility does exist, however, for the school to include this group within the framework of its objectives, curriculum, and methodology in order to avoid haphazard achievement of good citizenship habits.

II. Experimental Solution

This school has accepted the challenge. A positive attempt has been made to fit the truant or chronic absentee into the existing

school. A program has been put into operation during the current term with the following salient features:

1. Two special classes have been organized for chronic absentees.
2. These classes are known as "opportunity" or "vestibule" classes where pupils engage in a program of rehabilitation. When deemed sufficiently reconditioned these pupils are restored to classes of their original standing.
3. A special shop and academic plan has been formulated. Daily activity consists of two periods of academic work, one period of physical training and three periods of exploratory shop work.
4. Qualified teachers have been assigned to these classes: one for academic work, one for physical training and another for the shop. A special counselor is also assigned for continual intensive study of each pupil.
5. An attempt is made to formulate all activity along these general lines:
   a. A "club" atmosphere predominates.
   b. Academic work is streamlined and individualized.
   c. Pupil interests are used as starting points.
   d. Remedial work is applied wherever possible.
   e. Individual guidance study is maintained.
   f. Special activities of the school are used for adjustment purposes, i.e., medical department, placement office, guidance bureau, etc.
   g. Physical training is informal and recreational in nature.
   h. Shop activity is general, exploratory and functional.
   i. The idea of rewards and incentives is exploited.
   j. Parental cooperation is constantly solicited.

III. Tentative Evaluation

A complete evaluation of these classes is difficult to make at this time. They have not been in operation long enough to warrant a clear-cut and positive position regarding them. There are many administrative kinks to iron out especially those referring to teacher personnel, adequate class and shop facilities, and programming. Much time and effort are being expended in dealing with the daily problems that arise. The teachers and supervisors involved are constantly studying and evaluating methodology and instructional materials for these pupils. While the classes represent a superficial aspect of homogeneity in a sense that the pupils are all chronic absentees, they actually consist of pupils with a wide variety of individual differences. Some are dull; many are normal; a few

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are bright. In most instances their chronic absenteeism is deeply rooted and multifarious in nature. The usual picture of maladjustment prevails insofar as emotional instability has resulted from unfortunate previous school experiences or out-of-school influences. Under these conditions class management is difficult and procedures have to be carefully studied and applied.

One major benefit appears to have resulted. In the use of these classes many truants in the school have been localized in a situation that permits greater opportunity for positive action. They have been removed from normal classes in order to permit teachers more time to devote to other pupils and also for the purpose of eliminating the effect that truants might have on other pupils. An objection had been raised that segregation of truants in special classes tends to stigmatize them with deleterious effect. That objection has been met by programming certain pupils for other shops, by advancing them as soon as they are considered rehabilitated and by stressing generally among them the idea that these classes are temporary and opportunistic. In some instances pupils have become so secure with these groups that definite resistance was encountered in advancing them.

It is too soon to measure the results of this program. However, considerable evidence does exist even at this stage that we can view the experiment with optimism. It appears that a significant number of these pupils are attending the special classes with more regularity than was previously indicated. Ultimately our success will have to be measured by that index. If their attendance improves, it will mean that we are establishing a reasonable lessening of their negative attitude toward school. A distinction should be made, however, between a genuine development of appreciation for what school offers in terms of their adolescent minds and those overt advantages which attendance in these classes may imply. It would be unwise to solicit good attendance solely on the grounds of special privilege wherein short sessions, tolerance for sub-standard school attitudes and "don't bother them" procedures are used. Catering to them must be considered as a tactical approach to developing them to a point where they can absorb sound educational values. This is not an easy thing to do considering the deep-seated causes for their truancy. Nevertheless, from studying these pupils and through individual interviews with most of them, we have noted a gradual emergence of a feeling that they realize that we are trying "to give them a

break." At the close of the term a more indicative analysis along these lines will be made.

Certain changes and improvements were made during the term as were warranted by evolving conditions:

1. Because of the make up of one of these classes, it was considered advisable to change the shop and shop teacher at the mid-term period. It was felt that a change of activity and a new teacher would have a salutary effect on these pupils. Normally such a mid-term shift is routine for all 9th year pupils as part of the exploratory program in which pupils receive a variety of shop experiences. One special class was simply included in the general shift. However, it was considered advisable to withhold the other one from this shift because of the success being achieved with this group and the present teacher.

2. It was observed that these pupils need more controlled supervision and guidance in health education activities. Accordingly, as the program developed it was found advisable to program these classes alone in the gymnasium or yard in order to avoid class-management disturbances. Better results were obtained by exclusive work with a well qualified teacher.

3. Whenever the pupils were given an opportunity to go to the other shops, classes, and special activities, a better attitude was noted. From experience it was found that a central check system had to be evolved in which one counselor was responsible for checking on all the administrative details of individual programs for these pupils.

IV. Further Recommendations

It is believed that a good start has been made toward an effective solution to this problem. We should continue along the lines already established but with the adoption of further refining procedures which may prove more successful. The present organization of these classes has taught us a great deal. On the basis of it certain recommendations are offered for next term:

1. These classes should not be designated as first-term classes. Many of the pupils would normally be in higher classes and they should not feel that they are retarded. Another designation should be used.

2. No pupil should be assigned to these classes without preliminary screening by a counselor. As a result of careful study, it is believed that a distinction should be made between truants who can

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profit from certain group or class treatment and other truants who need individual handling exclusively. The latter should not be placed on the active register of these classes. They should be segregated in a special book and handled by the Guidance Bureau as individuals who need highly preferential treatment for complex reasons. Such a distinction would permit more effective group work in the opportunity classes with those pupils who are truants for more observable and possibly more remedial reasons.

3. The classes should be kept small. Fifteen should be considered the maximum if highly individualized work is to be carried on.

4. A plan has been presented whereby three classes will be organized for next term. Different shops have been designated with teachers who are considered qualified for this type of pupil. This plan calls for two classes that will exchange shops and use no academic rooms although academic work will be correlated with shop experiences. The remaining class will continue as of this term, namely, one teacher for academic work (2 periods), one for health education (one period) and one for shop (3 periods). Health education will be programmed for the three classes by themselves. With this arrangement, opportunity will be afforded to make changes for shop-minded or academically-minded pupils. It will be interesting to observe and measure the operations of the two methods.

5. It is recommended that shop teachers assigned to this experiment be programmed for no more than 25 periods a week in order to permit them sufficient time for lesson preparation and counseling of pupils and parents.

6. Every pupil sent to an opportunity class should be "worked-up" as a complete guidance case. He should be examined and tested both physically and mentally as the first part of the adjustment process, with suitable follow-up.

7. It is recommended that all academic teachers assigned to the program be considered part of the Guidance Bureau staff and wherever possible their teaching program should be reduced to allow for guidance duties. In the plan presented for next term they would have no more than three periods a day in these classes. It is believed that it would be unwise to assign them to such intensive work for longer classroom time.

8. The ten functional approaches mentioned above in II-5 should be stressed. As materials, methods and procedures are proved to be

successful they should be included in a syllabus which ought to be prepared for this program.

9. A concerted drive should be made to see every parent or representative of the family as often as possible. Also, weekly progress cards should be given to each pupil in the class for certification by parents.

10. Excellent cooperation has been noted in respect to the Attendance Bureau Supervisor and Officers assigned to the school. The effectiveness of their work might be further enhanced if scheduled conferences were held regularly for the purpose of case study of the pupils attending these classes. The Attendance Bureau representatives should contribute valuable home visitation material to these conferences. It is strongly recommended, also, that the staff of attendance officers be increased. Only one such officer is now assigned to this school.

11. The usual teacher's standards of accomplishment for normal pupils should be waived in this program. The teachers involved should be encouraged to initiate and develop ideas in a cooperative manner. They should be commended wherever possible and inspired in a task that is difficult but eminently worthwhile.

V. Re-Emphasis

The foregoing analysis is an attempt to offer a practical approach to the problems of truancy. It is based upon a position which is enunciated in the following:

A. *Attendance cannot be dissociated from instruction.*

B. *All pupils, regardless of ability and background, are entitled to the best that we can give them.*

C. *Community, family, and individual emotional stability factors are part of the attendance problem.*

D. *Through a planned program we can habituate good attendance for a significant number of pupils.*

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Two on the Aisle for High School Students

ALICE C. WRIGHT, IDA MARTUS

New York audiences—especially in certain theaters and concert halls—seem suddenly to be growing younger. Instead of the traditional blase, amuse-me-if-you-can theatergoers, intermission lights now reveal a much larger percentage of eager, enthusiastic fans. New York youth is flocking in incredible numbers to concert, ballet, and opera performances. Last year alone, forty-eight thousand high school students bought tickets en masse for productions on Broadway. During the last six years, one hundred sixty-four thousand adolescent spectators have attended professional performances together. New blood is really being poured into the theater.

Does this mean that the much maligned younger generation has suddenly become culture conscious? Or that the jive hounds have abandoned their favorite hot players to give themselves to the spell of long hair music? No, not exactly. No miracles have been performed. It merely means that through the cooperative efforts of a number of groups, a way has been found to make theater going for young people easy, attractive, and moderate in price. Tickets are sold to them in their classrooms in the city's high schools. The sensitive and imaginative among them have been thrilled by the beauty and the magic that is the theater. They have gone again and again and have raved to their friends. And behold, there is born a new generation of theater lovers, hungry for dramatic fare.

HISTORY. This project, with its limitless possibilities for the future, was organized in 1940. At that time everyone was worried about the slowly dying theater. People who loved it gathered in groups to talk nostalgically of its past glories and of fantastic schemes to revive it. The people of the theater, threatened with vanishing livelihoods, anxiously formed committees to study audience-building activities and to fight the competing appeal of the cinema, the radio, and the motor car. Teachers of English were among those who lamented loudly the scarcity of good plays, both because they are for the most part theater-lovers themselves and because they were finding it increasingly difficult to teach plays from the printed page to young people who had never seen any on the stage. They found that out of each one hundred children they taught, only one on the average had ever attended a legitimate play. They felt then, as they

still do today, that each student in the classroom ought to have an opportunity to see worthwhile plays at a price that he can afford to pay; that he needs to be weaned from the Grade B tastes he has been developing in his double-feature, neighborhood movie theaters and to discover and practice decently considerate audience behavior, so frequently lost sight of among the guffaws and wisecracks of his contemporaries there; that he needs to experience the brand new thrill of shared emotion, to feel that magic spell by which skilful actors can merge the diversified individualities in the audience into a harmonious whole.

A small group of such hardy believers banded together in September, 1940, under the high sounding title, *The School and Theater Committee of the New York City Association of Teachers of English.* They began to write pleading letters to the newspapers, to harass hardboiled producers, many of whom preferred to leave seats empty rather than sell tickets to students at cut-rates. The Board of Education gave wholehearted support, throwing their power and prestige behind the drive to create a new audience. A teacher representative was appointed to handle tickets in each high school.

Lucky encounters with social-minded personalities on Broadway helped the committee form a spearhead directed at the box offices. Soon thousands of tickets for regular performances at reduced rates were being sold to students in English classrooms all over the city. John Mason Brown served as a kind of godfather to the project, giving tips as to producers most likely to be interested, letting his name be used as an entering wedge, even telephoning to make appointments when there were rebuffs in the outer offices. As always, the big people were invariably sympathetic and helpful if the committee could get past the little people at the doors, and, of course, those with doubtful runs were much more eager to cooperate than those with hits. Warren Munsell of the Theater Guild was very kind and encouraging, as was James Reilly of the League of New York Theaters. The latter was skeptical until convinced that this was not just another group of visionary drama lovers, but that a practical system for mass distribution had already been set up. Others who were enthusiastic about the plan and agreed to serve on the advisory committee were: Ruth Gordon, Margaret Webster, Elmer Rice, Brock Pemberton, Theresa Helburn, Mrs. Winthrop Ames, Barrett H. Clark, and Paul Turner.

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LOW-COST MATINEES. More important, perhaps, was a meeting with "the Pied Piper" of Broadway, Mr. Alfred Harding, editor of *Actors' Equity Magazine,* who organized a series of low-cost performances for high school pupils. This program of five-cent matinees, which have sometimes cost ten or fifteen cents, was launched on May 30, 1941, by Katherine Cornell in a performance of *The Doctor's Dilemma.* The project was greeted with genuine enthusiasm by all the New York newspapers; it made the front page of the *Herald-Tribune* and the first page of the second section of the *New York Times.* John Anderson, referring to it as a "jitney jubilee," characterized it as "a fresh glimmering promise of hope" for Broadway. The *New York Post* wrote of being enchanted with the plan, ending its article with a cheer for the theater people for being men of vision (the teacher-part being taken for granted, as usual). Mr. Harding persuaded the theatrical unions, the stage hands, ticket agents, press agents, wardrobe attendants, actors, and theater managers to donate their services, and the dramatists and producers to waive royalties and profits to the cause of fostering theater appreciation in the young, occasionally to repeat several times as in the case of those connected with the Henry Miller theater where three such performances have been given. The matinee tickets were distributed through the schools, after a drawing of lots to determine the order of attendance and respective locations in the theater. Only the most mature from among those young people who had never seen a Broadway play were chosen.

FIRST EXPERIENCES. It proved to be a thrilling experience for them. One student, who was a bit tardy for one of these matinees, described her reaction, common to many others: *"As I stepped into the black hall, the stage seemed to spring at me from the darkness—all light, colorful and alive."* Another, more materialistically inclined, wrote in the course of a letter, *"I laughed as hard as if I had paid $4.40 for a seat and wanted to get my money's worth."* The casts of the plays have found the students exceptionally responsive. Howard Lindsay, in a very moving little curtain speech at the end of *Life With Father,* told the student-audience that their appreciation had made that afternoon's performance the most exciting one the cast had ever given.

Fifteen such special matinees have been made possible through the generosity of the people of the theater in the past six years, thus

enabling each senior and vocational high school to be represented at several performances. Mr. Harding pointed out in a newspaper article, *"This is the first program on which all the theater has ever united and stayed united. They are doing so because they realize that these children have been growing up, knowing all about motion picture players and radio performers, steeped in the lore of how they live and what they eat and wear, but knowing almost nothing about the theater and its people and caring less. There is a whole generation in America to whom the theatre and its people are only a little less fabulous than the tall clipper ships that once sailed the seven seas. Under ordinary circumstances these children would never learn about the theater nor guess that it might hold riches and pleasures not to be found in any other entertainment."*

THE CITY CENTER. Just about the time when theaters were so prosperous that getting cut-rate tickets was impossible, The City Center was organized with its policy of a $2.40 top. Since the School and Theater Committee had its machinery set up—(a theater representative in every vocational and academic high school in all of New York City public high schools)—Mr. Friedgut, at that time the director of the City Center, asked the committee to work with the newly organized theater. As a community project, students were encouraged to bring their parents and friends. Low as the prices were at the City Center, an additional discount of twenty percent was given to students. In fact, sometimes the whole house was re-scaled for the students, with seats at thirty cents in the second balcony, and one dollar in the orchestra. The appeal of these low prices can be seen by the fact that during the year beginning September, 1944, and ending June, 1945, 37,500 tickets were sold to students for fourteen productions at the City Center. One young man asked his teacher what it would cost to sit in the orchestra "like a gentleman." These low prices made it possible for many young people to obtain orchestra seats for little more than the price of a movie on Broadway.

When the City Center organized its own opera company, the committee again was asked to help in the sale of tickets. Although the committee previously had sold tickets only for dramatic offerings, timidly it set about introducing students to the operas. A special matinee of *Martha* was given at greatly reduced prices. About 1400 attended. The next year about 3400 students attended. This year

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in the combined fall and spring seasons, more than 10,000 opera tickets were sold to students.

This year, too, the commercial theaters have given the committee remarkably fine cooperation. The Theatre Guild offered us tickets for *A Winter's Tale* and *He Who Gets Slapped.* Kermit Bloomgarten sold the committee tickets for *Deep Are The Roots.* Very early in the run of *Hamlet,* Michael Todd set aside 4000 tickets at cut-rate prices. But the committee's greatest achievement was the fact that 4400 seats were allocated to the schools by the Old Vic. This was possible because of the kindness of Mr. Richard Aldrich, manager of Theater, Incorporated. Through his generosity and that of Mr. Burrell and the actors of Old Vic, two thousand students attended dress rehearsals of *Henry IV, Part II,* and *Uncle Vanya.*

HOMEBOUND CHILDREN. For the committee, the most gratifying part of their work has been that done with homebound children. These are children who are so badly crippled or so ill that they cannot attend school. The Board of Education sends teachers to the homes of these children. Many of them are very poor and never get out of their homes. Tickets for the ballet, the opera, the various plays and the Leonard Bernstein concerts, which have been given to them gratis by the committee, opened a new life for them. Their letters reveal the joy of these students at the opportunity given them to come out of their shut-in lives.

"Dear Miss ———

"This is the first time I have ever gone to see an opera, and it was the most wonderful thing that happened in all my life. The gay colors of the clothes and dresses made me feel happy."

"I am nine years old and today I received official notice that I was promoted to grade 5A. I celebrated this great day by going to the concert, performed by Leonard Bernstein. I liked it very much and would enjoy seeing more of them. This was a real treat because it was the first concert I have ever attended."

"I wasn't able to write sooner because I've been ill with a cold. I want to thank you for the lovely time I had seeing the play Little Women. . . . *If you could have seen how happy we children were! Thanks again, and may God bless you."*

Dear Miss ———

"Thank you very much for the invitation to The Bartered Bride, *I have never enjoyed an opera so much as I did this one. The*

scene I like the most was when Vaskik entered and started to talk and sing in that shy, funny manner that he did. I know that everyone was laughing their heads off at him. I don't think you can imagine how thankful I am for those wonderful chances you have given me to go to the different concerts and performances. Wishing you a Merry Xmas.

A very admiring Pupil."

This is Rita Bender—one of the handicapped girls you so generously gave the ticket to, for the City Center Theater. I wish to acknowledge my heartfelt thanks, for not only did I enjoy Little Women *tremendously, but the advice Professor Bhaer (Herbert Berghof) gave to Jo (Mary Welch) will be good for me, also. You see, I, too, aspire to writing.* Little Women *was the first Broadway show I have ever seen. Once again I wish to thank you."*

TEACHER COMMENTS. Teachers, too, are enthusiastic about this project even though they do this work in addition to their already heavy programs. Theater representatives were asked to evaluate the work of the committee. A teacher of a junior high school writes:

"I am very pleased to have this opportunity to let you know how much I appreciate the valuable work your committee is doing for our school children. In my school, many of the children had never, previously, attended the type of performances that you have sponsored. Through your cooperation, they were able to enjoy these new experiences so thoroughly, that I feel they will continue to patronize these better forms of entertainment. This will give them a worthwhile form of leisure-time activity and afford them very much pleasure for years to come."

Another junior high school teacher writes:

"The girls are most enthusiastic and come away thrilled after each performance. They are being introduced to sights and sounds they never dreamed of, all of which are evoking most searching questions from them."

From a vocational high school:

"I want to express sincere thanks to you and to the School and Theatre Committee for giving our students the opportunity to enjoy so many outstanding, artistic performances. . . . Your com-

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mittee has opened new vistas of recreation and education for our vocational high school pupils, many of whom could not afford to become theatergoers at Broadway prices."

A chairman of an English department writes:

"As you know, in this school I have taken personal charge of advertising the plays the Committee has offered to the schools, so that I feel well qualified to speak of the work. Work has been of great value to the schools. It has made it possible for the girls who otherwise would never go to the theater to see plays of high caliber."

From a teacher in the Fashion Institute of Technology and Design:

"The School and Theatre committee deserves the highest praise for the excellent opportunity it has brought to the young people of the New York City schools to see, first hand, living art. . . . . The thrill which you miss is after they've seen a performance. The remarks run, 'What wonderful seats,' 'What a fine performance.' And best of all was the handling of the costumes after the ballet."

THE THEATER HABIT. It is amazing how quickly this project has created confirmed theatergoers and, of course, a new crop comes along each season. At first, pupils are inclined to eye the tickets offered them a bit skeptically, to be suspicious of all teachers' ideas for cultivating their minds. Soon they begin to besiege their teachers with that familiar ticket gleam in their eyes. Often they write grateful letters like the following: *"They (the Day family) made such a human, such a realistic, such a convincing family that my troubles and worries were laid at my feet. I was convinced that doing homework and passing algebra tests was not all there is to life."* Adolescent boys who originally scoffed at the idea of going to opera and ballet performances now attend with eagerness and without embarrassment. Junior high students are included whenever the plays are suitable. One very young non-reader wrote with deep sincerity but doubtful punctuation: *"The ticket for Little Women was very much appreciated and I want you to know that I enjoyed every minute of the play. When the book was out sometime ago I didn't bother to read it, in the first place I don't care to read very much. So if I ever get the chance to read it again or should I say just plain read it I will do so. Because now I can see it just like the scenes were on the stage."*

The committee feels that the variety of its offerings has been one of the reasons for the success of this project. It has offered the students Shakespeare which they liked, as witness 10,000 tickets sold for *Othello*, 6,700 for the Maurice Evans's production of *Hamlet*, 2,000 for *Henry IV, Parts I and II*, 4,500 for *Twelfth Night*. It has given them musical drama—10,000 tickets sold for *Porgy and Bess*, and 8,600 for *Oklahoma*. Plays with social implications are popular, too, 4,000 for *Watch on the Rhine* and 3,000 for *Deep Are The Roots*. They have gone—6,300 of them—to three student matinee concerts conducted by Leopold Stokowski. They filled two houses (2,600 capacity) for *Carmen* and *Madame Butterfly*. They came hesitatingly to the ballet, but came again each season.

Most of the students who have attended these performances have received all their theater experience through the work of this committee. Many of them, after their first and second experiences at the theater, become avid theatregoers.

THE FUTURE. This beachhead on Broadway has already proved its value not only in the enjoyment brought to these young people, but also in the financial assistance given struggling worthwhile plays. By removing the obstacles to ticket-buying which at present discourage all but the most persistent of seasoned theatergoers, thousands of tickets have been sold which might otherwise have remained in the box office. Thousands of students have improved their audience manners and raised the level of their taste in entertainment. This audience of tomorrow, by developing an interest in the serious drama, may thus exert a profound influence on the theater of the future. The day may come when there will be quality as well as quantity on Broadway. Hail to a new audience that will really believe with Shakespeare, *"The play's the thing."*

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The Teacher and the Sound Film

EDWARD G. BERNARD*

The motion picture has become a classroom tool which no efficient teacher or supervisor can afford to ignore. A means of improving learning which has been appraised and used by educators for several decades, the teaching film was developed and applied on a truly large scale as a basic military training tool in the recent global conflict. The U. S. Army and Navy alone produced in three years many times the number of instructional sound films that had previously been turned out by all sources since the invention of the sound motion picture. Frequently in most vital learning matters, such as transmitting the information for introduction of new weapons at the front, films were the only means used.

A NEW ERA. Apart from its major share in the rapid creation of the winning United Nations team in World War II, and the educational lessons to be derived therefrom, the significant new fact about the teaching film as a tool is the end of its vicious-circle period. Until now there have been too few owners of projectors to warrant the production of sound films but on the other hand, creating an impasse, too few sound films have been available to make the ownership of projectors widely attractive. With the expanded factories and enlarged producer organizations which served the war effort now turning to the peacetime requirements of the schools, we may expect rapid growth in the importance and scope of film resources for classroom use.

These developments have been carefully observed by those responsible at headquarters and have been the subject of analysis as to how they can best be translated into improved resources for New York's classrooms. A large program of experimental schools for development of visual instruction as a basic teaching method ultimately in every New York City school is being launched by the Curriculum Development Division with the Elementary Schools Division, the Junior High School Division, and the Vocational High Schools Division.

PROBLEMS. What adjustments and problems does the use of films now present for the teacher and supervisor? How can we apply this new tool most efficiently? What results can we expect? In the early days of visual instruction, opposition to the new medium

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was encountered from those in the teaching profession who feared that the film might displace the teacher. Such concern has long since been set at rest by increasing recognition that the value of the educational film varies directly with the correctness of its use by skilled teachers. Despite much general awareness among experienced people in the visual field that this is so, however, there has long been a need for an exact investigation which would dispel both the aura of mumbo-jumbo created by those who needlessly inflate and complicate the subject, and the carelessness of those of the opposite extreme. Such a study of film utilization is currently at hand from Paul Wittich and Guy Fowlkes of the University of Wisconsin. Their new work, *Audio-Visual Paths to Learning,* takes immediate place among the most substantial and significant researches in the field. Directed to the problem of evaluating the contribution to learning from films the Wittich-Fowlkes study compares the effectiveness of three film utilization methods. Their controlled experiment was conducted at the Marquette Elementary School, Madison, Wisconsin from October, 1942, to June, 1943, with 264 children of the third, fourth and fifth grades, with whom 27 *Encyclopedia Britannica* films were used in three differing presentation methods.

PROCEDURES. The first method involved no special advance preparation other than in the course of casual and unorganized class work. After the film the class answered test questions. The second method included advance reading of a general description of the film and its mood, study of difficult words and phrases in the sound track of the film, and study of basic questions about major topics in the film. Follow-up after showing the film consisted only of taking a test immediately after seeing it. In addition to the steps taken in the second method, the third procedure had the class do three things 24 hours later: (a) answer a set of discussion questions, (b) see the film again, and (c) take the test a second time immediately afterward.

As might in general have been expected, the third method yielded substantially superior results. Not only does the use of the third method achieve scores virtually double those of the first, as regards information gained, but the second and third methods were found to make students increasingly able observers and better able to handle thought questions which involve independent thinking. It was further found that children of low and high I.Q. appear to be

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motivated and to learn equally well from films, although previous beliefs in the field have held that superior results are obtained with low I.Q.'s. Other findings of the Wittich-Fowlkes study showed that the more difficult the film, the more effective the anticipatory work. Performance on tests correlated with reading ability of the children, but this tended to decrease as the difficulty of the film and grade levels was raised. At the start of their experiment, the youngsters regarded films as entertainment devices, not work tools, but this was gradually replaced, as the work progressed, by appreciation of their value in learning.

Thus the *evidence of this study emphasizes the value of thorough advance preparation of the class and follow-up, including discussion and re-showing of the film, in drawing maximum benefits from sound motion pictures in teaching.*

GAINS. That this is so is undoubtedly traceable to the packed content of the films utilized by Wittich and Fowlkes. It is noted that one of the ten-minute films in 4th grade geography, which develops 124 concepts, closely approximates the information presented in a twenty page chapter of a well known geography textbook, on which a class might normally spend from two weeks to a month of time. Most of the films used in the study were found to present between 80 and 110 concepts per ten-minute reel of 400 feet. Clearly no competent teacher should expect even the most brilliantly conceived film to get a hundred or more new concepts solidly into a group of youngsters' minds after only a casual, single ten-minute showing. That the work of weeks can be reduced to the work of days, in many instances, is a significant gain. It is a gain which can best be realized, however, by at least as much conscientiousness toward the film as toward any other teaching tool. The film can not, indeed, supplant teaching, but will greatly strengthen it if properly used. Wittich and Fowlkes say, *"Using the films correctly, anticipating vocabulary, setting the pace through question helps, testing for understanding, discussing, reshowing a film and retesting, will reveal to students information about processes, places, things and social experiences in a manner yet unsurpassed by any other classroom learning technique."*

VARIED TREATMENT. Lest it be assumed that all films by their nature involve similar and equally intensive treatment, this study should be understood in the light of the types of films and

subject matter tested, which necessarily were crowded with strange and new subject matter for the children. Not all films of value in the classroom are of this type, however, and those which deal inspirationally with largely familiar ideas should not be assumed to require the same teaching approaches. A film must be approached by the teacher in one sense as a film, but more significantly as specific subject matter, in which respect each film involves its own approach, as does any other type of teaching material. The Wittich-Fowlkes study makes a valuable first step toward the collection of case histories we shall ultimately need, to enrich and understand our handling of this teaching tool and others in various basic educational situations.

CONCLUSIONS. In many basic respects, such as individualized approach to each film and class situation, good utilization is a normal and simple application of good teaching practice generally. The experienced instructor will find little strange in adjusting to the film the motivation, advance preparation and follow-up techniques which he has long applied to many other teaching presentations and devices. It is a major fallacy to limit discussion of the problem of good utilization solely or predominantly to correct teaching method. With so many new and improved teaching tools as films becoming available in a steady stream, another basic aspect of the utilization problem for the classroom teacher, as for the supervisor and administrators, is to be sure that the best instrument for a given task is known and used. Keeping staffs informed and helping instructors to make sound up-to-date selections are related elements in good utilization of films in the classroom. These elements assume major importance where staffs are professional, and general teaching skills are high. Ability of every teacher to operate the basic equipment, and provision of simplified refresher instruction required for familiarization with these simple devices are other essentials for our realizing the full benefits of visual instruction. To develop and support the several aspects of good utilization—information dissemination, distribution of fully modern materials, teacher training, and others closely related —the responsibility is not only that of the individual teacher, but also that of adequate central service and guidance. The benefits of reduced costs, improved learning and interest which are derived from more efficient tools for instruction such as the sound film are outgrowths only of properly balanced operation.

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English for the Millions

SAMUEL BECKOFF
Long Island City High School

The prodigiously successful Victor Hugo always had his finger on his publisher's pulse. Soon after one of his novels came out, he was very anxious to know how the book was selling. Not wanting to write a long letter, he sent the following royalty-free note to his publisher:

"? Victor Hugo."

The publisher, more than pleased with the sales, replied:

"!"

If English could be reduced to such fundamentals there would be no difficulty in getting it accepted as a universal second language. However, save for a few unfortunate examples of English linguistic horror, the language is basically far from prolix, simpler than most languages in syntax, and very likely to be accepted eventually.

The American soldier abroad has already done his share in demonstrating the attractiveness of the English language. The French yielded to them to the extent of displaying signs such as the one that appeared recently in a smart gift shop in the Rue de la Paix in Paris: "English spoken—American understood." There's a ray of hope in that.

ANGLO-AMERICAN. This auxiliary language would be Anglo-American, with the overtones of the common speech which Shakespeare incorporated into his plays, and of the American idiom, that rapidly-changing, never-stabilized form of the traditional English. Let us bear in mind that the American language is not all Anglo-Saxon; that the American language is made up of the contributions of about 50,000,000 persons of British and North Irish descent and of 80,000,000 persons of French, Dutch, Scandinavian, Russian, German, Czechoslovak, Italian, Polish, Negro, Asiatic, et al. descent. As one lexicographer put it the American language is the *"warwhoop of the Indians, the tang and argot of the Wild West and the Forty-Niners, the love songs of the Negroes, of the strife and the passions of the Revolution and of the Civil Wars."*

SLANG. More and more readers are becoming familiar with the great semantic shift which is far more noticeable in Anglo-Ameri-

can than in any other language. Emerson preferred this slang, the "stinging rhetoric of the streets," to the faultless, stabilized English which lacks "verve and dagger." The American serviceman also agreed with Emerson. His language, like that of his non-matriculated ancestors, favored terms like "crash wagon" for the service truck at the airfield, "boil" for the small enclosure for gun and gunner projecting from the "shell" of the airplane, "crocodile soldier" for members of the Amphibious Command, the "Gibson Girl" which is found on the self-inflating "pararaft" for making contact with the rescue patrol. He converted place names into something wondrously American. Randazzo became Razzledazzle, Paterno became Paterson, Mt. Etna became Mt. Edna. Soldiers and civilians alike in America have long preferred the whimsical *bag a shells* to *bagatelle.*

We are sure the polysyllabic Philip Wylie was not referring to the common man in the street when he excoriated our American author as "monosyllabic messiahs," "pinhead engravers worshipping the simplicity of little words, . . . " He quarrels with the description of our "spare-ribs" literature as "Gothic" or "primitive." To him it is not Gothic, but a concession to the badly-taught multitude, the bleak exigencies of journalism, the authors of advertising, the preparers of radio scripts. To him this is limpidness, not limpidity. Mr. Wylie's philippic is, in essence, *the kind of Anglo-American we should like to read more often!*

REFORM NEEDED. Let's be frank about it. The English language as it exists today is, in spite of its inherent simplicity, in the same condition as classic Chinese. China has an exceptionally high rate of illiteracy because the governmental and educational authorities have never been willing to introduce a few changes in the language that would make it more intelligible and teachable. Turkey did it. Norway has legislated several changes into her alphabet during the last fifty years.

English likewise has many excresences and tortuosities acquired over a period of years. Some of these originated with respectable authors—but not with the very popular ones! These excrescences may be found peacefully embalmed in the classics, the "period pieces" that have been the bane of the schoolboy's existence and the holy writ of the timid schoolmarm. There's a not-too-little list of these, and it's our thought that they'll never be missed!

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JARGON. One of Henry James' devotees once betrayed the Great Expatriate's influence by defining love as "the ideality of the relativity of an infinitesimal portion of the absolute totality of the Infinite Being." Such a definition could set love back indefinitely!

The Office of Price Administration, also under the influence of Henry James, sent out this terse communique to an inquiring farmer: "Cabbage seed (*Brassica Capitata*) is the seed used to grow cabbages." The amazed farmer wrote back: "Has the OPA any inside information on what seed is used to grow cabbageheads?" and voted Republican the following year!

Herbert Spencer, the great protagonist of nineteenth-century science, defined evolution in the following clear, terse, scientific language as "an integration of matter and concomitant dissipation of motion; during which matter passes from an indefinite homogeneity to a definite, coherent heterogeneity; and during which the retained motion undergoes a parallel transformation." William James, Henry's brother, playfully defined Spencer's definition thus: "Evolution is a change from a nohowish untalkaboutable not-all-alikeness by continuous sticktogetherations and somethingelsifications." Since Spencer wrote thousands of other similar passages subsequently, it is safe to say that he never got the point.

Mathematicians, being the most exact of scientists, can safely be entrusted with solving some of the world's most difficult problems. As George E. Moore relates, they can take a honey sentence like this: "The chop in that cupboard stinks," and then by applying the rigid method of mathematical logic get something like this: "At least one among all the things which exist at present is a chop in that cupboard, and there is not any among all the things that exist at present which is a chop in that cupboard and which does not stink." Logic truly is "streamlined thought" and can certainly "give the words of the tribe a purer meaning."

As for "gobbledygook," which according to its author Maury Maverick is "talk or writing which is long, pompous, vague, involved, usually with Latinized words," writers who favor it may do so out of other than literary motives. For example, the harassed patriarch, plagued with an heir at the questioning age, may successfully squelch the darling little "whys" guy with a well-turned bit of gobbledygook when a clear, simple sentence wouldn't. The doctor, afflicted with an incredulous patient, can easily impress her with full

conviction by pronouncing the magic word "pododynia" when "foot trouble" would simply fall flat on her ears. "Sodium acetyl salicylate" has also been known to cure a headache when "aspirin" wouldn't. In this case it's simply an instance of mind over matter. Finally, the hackneyed expressions can be transmuted into something wondrous through gobbledygook; thus, avaunt to the infernal purlieus (go to hell), rectangular collations (square meals), horological meticulosity (clocklike preciseness).

STYLES. Frederick L. Allen has nicely categorized writers in two groups, the *goons* (those with the heavy touch) and the *jiggers* (those with the light touch). The goonish style is "thick and heavy. It suggests the sort of oatmeal served at lunch counters, lumpy and made with insufficient salt. It is to be found at its best in nature books, railroads' travel folders, college catalogs, and prepared speeches by high public officials." Washington was a goon; Lincoln a jigger. Churchill, most of the time, is a goon; F.D.R. was a jigger. Most Germans are goons (cf. Hegel, Marx, Hitler); most French, jiggers.

Washington must be full of goons who are reported to favor these ten verbs over all others: *process, activate, deploy, implement, dispatch, facilitate, execute, contact, expedite, and brief.* Or these nouns: *reclassification, jurisdiction, proceedings, liaison, directive, allocation priorities, assignment, echelon, and secretariat.* This, says Frank Sullivan, is "Pentajargon," and is especially designed to confuse the poor taxpayer, who is thus inclined to agree with Sherman that war is some twenty-letter word meaning hell; or—massive documents labeled SOP (Standard Operating Procedure), TCA (Theater Command Approval), Basic Policy, Taken under Advisement, or Through Channels. Anyway the taxpayer looks at it, it's Pentajargon, gobbledygook, goonishness!

This then is the Anglo-American language as it exists today. Since it is a considerable challenge to the English-speaking people, how much more formidable does it seem to the person first starting to learn it. And yet, almost 300 million, more or less, speak it in the world today. Again, with a few changes millions more could learn it.

SUGGESTED CHANGES. First there's the long-overdue change in spelling. What other law-abiding citizen but an Anglo-Saxon (or

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a Finn) would put up with th*ough* (oh), th*ought* (aw), thr*ough* (oo), c*ough* (off), and b*ough* (ow)? Or, is it h*eight* (hite) or *weight* (wate)?

Why not substitute a single particle for a circumlocution? *The sun having risen* becomes *after sunrise; it will be seen from the foregoing figures* becomes *the foregoing figures show; it would thus seem that—seemingly; it is true that—admittedly; it is this that—this;* and *during the time that—while.*

Another method of simplifying the mechanics of Anglo-American would be to acquaint the citizen with one of the commonest devices of word-formation, the verb-adverb phrase. This is self-explanatory and leads to many new words. Of the many modern expressions, here are some of the most familiar ones: sitdown (strike), *touchdown, washout, layout* (and *outlay*), *holdup* (and *uphold*), *makeup, kickback, checkoff, write-in, throw-away, lookout* (and *outlook*), *income* (*outgo* and *outcome*), and many others. There is no grammatical mystery about these words.

Many of our servicemen in the South Pacific took very kindly to a well-known practical device there. They found the natives short-cutting their way through Anglo-American with Pidgin English; easily acquiring the necessary religious formulas when translated. To many Filipinos, the following was the Lord's Prayer:

"Papa belong me-fella. He stops on top Name belong you if taboo Kingdom belong you it come. Me-fella down all the same all on top he hear talk belong You. You bring food today belong me-fella. You forgive me-fella all the same me-fella he forgive all, all who make no good to me-fella; You no bring me-fella close to road it no good, You lose all the same things no good is kicked out from me-fella."

The Ten Commandments became intelligible as: *"Keep Sunday. Hear for Papa and Mamma. No kill. No make bad. No thief. No lie. No want other man his mary."*

A slight variation can be achieved in translating standard English into its syntactical Chinese equivalent. Let's take this passage in standard English: "There was a young man who was a simpleton. His father and mother were sorry that he was stupid, gave him money, and told him to leave home in order to learn manners." Translated it becomes: "Have one year-few man be stupid. He father mother sorrow be stupid, give he silver, tell he out-go learn manner."

NEOLOGISMS. Another device which seems to be exercising a tremendous effect on the language is the neologism. From the earliest day of the development of Anglo-American this has been the most characteristically American way. Lewis Browne, among many others, offers these in the pages of his *See What I Mean*: *bedventure, incompoop* (income plus nincompoop), *Bernarr McFaddist* (hygiene addict), *hocus-focus boy* (cameraman), *roaratory, debutarts, croonk* (crook plus crank), *acquiesce-man* (in Hollywood especially), *beerocracy, Ph.D-mon words.*

An indignant citizen, writing to the newspaper PM, defined *diesism* as: mud, threat and smears. The underworld likes *SLIG*, compounded of sucker plus lowbrow plus idiot plus goodwill-buster. The U. S. Weather Bureau has officially adopted *smog* (smoke plus fog).

BASIC ENGLISH. We have left Basic English for last. This latest system is well-thought-out, comprehensive, and very likely to succeed. It is far more attractive than the moribund synthetic languages like *Ido, Esperanto, Novial* and *Volapuk*. It *is* English, stripped of its redundancies and Latinic obscurities. Most important, whether per se or as simplifying influence on standard English, Basic will not down. By using Basic's *give up*, the beginner in English can avoid using, to a certain extent, the standard *abandon, abdicate, abjure, cede, desert, desist, forgo, forsake, relinquish, renounce, resign, surrender, vacate, withdraw,* and *yield*. Truly a linotypist's blessing! The citizen, already harassed by signwriters' redundancies, would welcome the Basic "Put lights out" for "Illumination is required to be extinguished"; "Put waste in box" for "Deposit litter in receptable"; "Please say nothing to driver while bus is going" for "Please refrain from conversation with operator while bus is in motion."

I. A. Richards further claims (in *Learning Basic English*) that the study of Basic will refresh interest in standard English; that it will give the learner (and the more literate person too) an enlarged sense of the miraculous resourcefulness of English; and that it will encourage an understanding of how sorts of writing differ.

OUR JOB. The task begins for us *here* at home. Our schools, our literature, our every means of communication must be made clearer and practicable. The ivory tower is now wired for sound. The

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world can tune in to us at will! Whatever we have to say will be listened to most attentively. *How* we say it will avoid considerable misunderstanding and conflict. It would be most unfortunate if the lessons learned so clearly by our leaders in the last war should be obscured in some Spencerian ambiguity when being conveyed to the masses. The common people, who have paid so high a price in blood and wealth, deserve to know the truth. The truth is most beautiful when it is most simply expressed.

High Points

THE ANTIQUARIAN'S CORNER

Paris has its book-stalls along the Seine, London its Charing Cross Road, New York its Fourth Avenue, and Rome had its Argiletum. This was a district between the Circus Maximus and the Aventine Hill whose narrow streets were lined with the shops of artisans and booksellers.

Just as a modern book-hunter browses through stacks of old volumes in quest of the unusual, so the bibliophiles of ancient Rome wandered from shop to shop searching through the scrolls for treasures.

Such a browser was Aulus Gellius, antiquarian, scholar, state official, and traveler, who lived during the second century of the Christian era. His collected essays, *The Attic Nights*, jottings on any topic of interest to him, contain a few accounts of his visits to bookshops.

It appears that men went to the shops not only to buy books, but also to discuss literature, philosophy, grammar, and etymology. "I happened to be in a bookshop in the Street of the Sandalmakers," Gellius tells us, and at once we are brought face to face with the life of a scholar in ancient Rome. In this bookstore, Gellius listened to a discussion between a scholar of authority and a pretender to knowledge. The topic was the meaning of certain words in the works of Sallust. This encounter was profitable to Aulus, who took notes and included the study of the words in his own book.

Once Gellius himself had quite a tussle with a quack. The latter asserted that he alone understood the *Satires* of Varro. Aulus happened to have a copy of the book with him from which he asked the self-professed expert to read a passage. "Ignorant schoolboys, had they been given the book to read, would not have made themselves more ridiculous, so badly did he pronounce the words, so wretchedly did he murder the ideas." As the by-standers, the flaneurs of the day, laughed at him, the unhappy fellow pleaded, "My eyes are bad from so much reading at night. When they get better, see me again and I'll read the whole thing for you." "You don't need your eyes for this question," Gellius pressed on, "Tell me what these words that you've already read mean." "The egregious blockhead" fled with the parting shot, "I don't give such information for free."

Self-constituted experts in all branches of learning, military strat-

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egy and politics still flourish, and even exposure does not discomfit them.

"I happened to be sitting in a bookshop in the Street of the Statuette-makers," is the opening of another bookshop anecdote. A customer wanted an errorless copy of the *Annals* of Fabius. The bookseller said he had it. A distinguished grammarian, called in by the prospective purchaser as an expert, alleged that there was one error in the copy. "I'll bet any amount there isn't a single letter that's wrong," the bookseller asserted. The grammarian pointed to the spelling of the Latin word for "eighteenth," and gave a corrected reading. Aulus' text contains a quotation in support of the grammarian's contention. Unfortunately, the manuscript of Gellius' story is not flawless itself, but full of gaps or *lacunae*. We are not told whether Aulus gave the reference in the store or whether he looked it up later. This is a mystery of the *Edwin Drood* type: we do not know whether the wager was accepted or how the matter of the error was settled.

Aulus Gellius doesn't tell us what he bought in the visits to the Roman bookshops. However, he is more specific when he relates a book adventure in another town.

"When I was returning from Greece to Italy, and had arrived at Brindisi, I strolled about in that famous port. I saw some stacks of books spread out for sale. At once I greedily made a bee-line for them. They were all in Greek, full of the most miraculous stories, of believe-it-or-not tales, written however by ancient writers of no mean authority. The books themselves were in very bad shape, filthy and suffering from long neglect. Still, I went over and asked, 'How much?' They were so cheap, so ridiculously cheap, that I bought a huge pile of them for no money at all. As I read, I took notes, and made a selection of some remarkable stories which our writers have never mentioned. I put these into this collection of oddities and comments so that readers won't seem ignorant when they come up in conversation."

Some of the tales culled by Gellius were certainly material for an ancient Ripley. Gellius learned about men whose feet point backwards, men with one eye in the middle of their forehead, men whose hair turn white in early childhood, men who have the head of dogs and who can bark, men with only one leg who can hop very fast, men whose bodies are covered with feathers and who live by

inhaling the perfume of flowers. He was as amazed as Desdemona listening to the wondrous adventures of Othello:

. . . of the Cannibals that each other eat,
The Anthropophagi, and men whose heads
Do grow beneath their shoulders.

There were also stories about cannibals in Aulus' treasure-trove, of persons who work spells by voice or tongue, of a tribe whose members have two pupils in their eyes and who can kill by gazing at their victim.

Aulus apologizes for relating these strange tales with the remark:

"I read stories like that and others, but when I came to write them down I was full of disgust for such useless stuff which doesn't add any enrichment or joy to life."

It is good to see that an ancient had so much scientific skepticism, but Aulus need not have felt so bad about writing these stories for posterity. Cannibals have existed after his time, and even in the enlightened twentieth century there are reports that the Nipponese soldier resorted to cannibalism. Belief in "hexing" perseveres in our own country: some persons still dread the evil eye. Astrologers, numerologists, palm readers flourish. As for the other tall tales, Aulus lived before the days of Ripley, Superman, supercomics, superpulps.

MORRIS ROSENBLUM Samuel J. Tilden High School

TOWARDS A HEIGHTENED SENSITIVITY

We all know the fruits of our early training: we know that the present is colored by the past and both affect the future. What happens to children is of urgent seriousness to us: they must grow into useful citizens, they must learn to work together, to be considerate of others—in short, to have *imaginative sympathy* for "people." Each teacher can best judge what he is doing to make-real these aims; but he cannot do his best work alone: he must put to use the resources in his community; he must use those young peoples' organizations that can aid him in his work.

Now where does the American Junior Red Cross come in? The place of the Junior Red Cross in school is evidenced by the State Department, the National Education Association, and the United State Office of Education. The State Department used our mailing-

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list to send the school children of America copies of the Charter of the United Nations. This year the National Education Association commended the Junior Red Cross for our record in behalf of the schools and school children in war-devastated areas, and proclaimed that its own international program will be worked out in conjunction with it; and, two years ago, the United States Office of Education named the Junior Red Cross as the best channel through which school children could help rehabilitate schools abroad. In connection with this relief and rehabilitaton program, it is our policy as agent to utilize the national Junior Red Cross organizations and, (where they have not yet reorganized) to work through the Ministeries of Education.

What are its aims? Junior Red Cross and the schools have common aims: common aims because both exist for young people, common aims because Junior Red Cross is helping educate children for the new atomic-age. The Junior Red Cross makes available to schools its tremendous resources in all countries. In other words, it provides for schools a union with an important community organization; through the local Red Cross youth has an opportunity to work hand-in-hand with each other and with adults. It leads boys and girls to a heightened sensitivity to personal and social needs on a local, national and world-wide scale; and, better, joins forces in doing something about those needs.

Young people want to help others their own age, but national and international machinery is absolutely necessary for this. The American Junior Red Cross has the organization, and, through the League of Red Cross Societies, it has the contacts. The Red Cross knows what the needs are, where they are; has the know-how and means to deliver the materials to places where needed. The National Children's Fund, built up from voluntary contributions from children, is spent on children; during the war it was used for children in war-torn lands: it bought food, clothing, shoes and medicine; since the war, it is used mainly for educational rehabilitation.

Many schools have integrated the numerous Junior Red Cross projects with their work in English, Art, Social Studies, Languages, Science, Civics, Health, Homemaking and Shop. These schools have utilized service-projects to vitalize classroom work.

Through Junior Red Cross Councils, members plan and execute the projects. Electing council members and operating the Council furnish experiences for developing good citizenship so essential in

a democracy. Discussion of the qualifications needed by council representatives, their election, and the delegation of authority to the Council provide first-hand experiences in representative government. The duties of the Council are such that the members have experience in democratic planning, in participating in group decisions, and in developing leadership ability.

What do members do? They are developing friendship among youth of other lands through correspondence, gift-boxes, food, and medical supplies; they are helping to rebuild Junior Red Cross around the world; they are supplying comfort and recreation articles needed for children's hospitals, orphanages, child-care centers, veterans' hospitals, and our occupation troops; they are promoting community health by taking Red Cross health and safety courses; they are exploring local needs and have activities that lead to sympathetic understanding and responsibility toward other people in the community.

Finally, in the words of Robert Manley, high-school student, Junior Red Cross speaker at the National Convention (June, 1946): "We feel that to serve others is a privilege and a source of satisfaction. We recognize that this privilege has been offered to us by our progressive educators and civic leaders. As we work side by side, we are developing initiative and responsibility, fitting us to assume in adult life our places as active citizens in the United Nations of the World. We, the young people of America and of other lands do believe in our Junior Red Cross pledge of service for others, for our country, our community, and our school, in health of mind and body, to fit us for greater service and for better human relations throughout the world."

CHARLES S. JOHNSON — Director, Junior Red Cross for Greater New York

HUMAN RELATIONS, SOCIAL VALUES, AND CULTURE THROUGH GUIDANCE

Fixed attitudes about specific occupations may be so deeply rooted in the cultural patterns of social groups as to nullify much of our educational or vocational guidance. It is both costly and wasteful of human time and energy to permit non-college youths to spend years preparing for college or for unsuitable occupations. Yet this human waste continues from year to year.

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Notwithstanding the increased emphasis on guidance procedures, occupational competence and good citizenship, the growing number of youthful delinquents, early school-leavers and unprepared job-seekers is evidence that potential abilities and talents are being lost to the community. Individual growth is not in accordance with social ideals and accepted culture patterns. Since career choices are often based on idealistic rather than on realistic considerations, many reach maturity unprepared to appreciate the good, the beautiful and the true—or to earn a living. They discover too late that they have made a mistake. Now, as never before, we are in need of advisers and counselors capable of determining whether individual abilities, aptitudes, interests and attitudes indicate probable success in occupations of a routine or mechanical nature, in technical fields, or in areas requiring academic training or managerial ability. Even then, without positive reaction on the part of the pupil personnel, these guidance techniques may prove ineffective. How to make them more effective becomes the problem for all of us.

COOPERATION NECESSARY. While the school may be held accountable for pupil development in orderly habits of thinking and doing, in getting along with others and in keeping in line with social standards, the school cannot succeed in these tasks single-handed. The individual, the home, the parent-teacher association, the juvenile-aid bureau, the service club, the church and the youth organization must all work with the school in the interest of the youth or the adult. It is possible that many of these agencies have functioned too late to accomplish results with human beings differing in personality, physique or learning capacity. It must be remembered that the industrial changeover from wartime to peacetime employment has created problems that cannot be solved without well-trained experts who have patience, understanding and a breadth of knowledge and experience about the social and economic problems of today.

We must keep our youth in school until they have mastered techniques and skills that will match individual differences with the demands of specific occupations. We must be alert to the possibility of a less active labor market with a surplus of skilled and unskilled workers in some fields, as well as to the opportunities in new fields. The problem for the present pupil looms large when we consider the million or more dislocated workers and the million men and women in the armed forces, who are returning to seek employment in tech-

nical, professional or industrial pursuits. Intelligent adjustment will be difficult without concerted efforts to clarify issues that lead to confused thinking about individual progress and community needs. Teachers and administrators alike must be ready to assume added responsibility in planning, organizing and conducting effective counseling services that really contribute to successful individual adjustment through mastery, social approval and security. On the other hand, guidance workers must avoid the giving of misinformation; for example, that the I.Q. is necessarily a measure of success, or that high scores on tests are sure indications of success in a vocational pursuit.

CULTURE PATTERN GUIDANCE FACTORS. Increased emphasis is being placed on the study of problems identified with the prevention of all forms of delinquency, the inculcation of desirable emotional attitudes and the development of well-adjusted personalities. The parent, the teacher and the enforcement officer are challenged by reports of pupils remaining away from school, by indifference in general, by the inability of the home or school to tap the reservoir of all-absorbing interests and by the failure of large numbers of adolescents to take advantage of opportunities that should help them to become self-supporting citizens. Possibly many are seeking activities that will give emotional relief to existing tensions. Since, however, the majority will be called upon to do the routine tasks that must be performed daily in most business or industrial concerns, it is incumbent on teachers and counselors alike to lay the groundwork for behavior attitudes that will lead to good work habits, manual skills and the desire to cooperate.

With increasing numbers of over-age students leaving school during the ninth and tenth years, it is open to question whether the subject-matter curriculums have failed to hold the interests or satisfy individual purposes for remaining in school. It is not really known whether this heavy mortality is due to economic conditions, home demands, emotional instability, ill health, or inability to learn. It is tragic to learn that individuals of demonstrated leadership qualities have dropped out of school before they should, that some do not find a sustaining interest, and that many are marking time until the law permits them to leave school. Possibly too much attention has been given to the analysis of elements without considering the complexities involved in the formation of any habit of thinking or doing.

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Again, little effort may have been directed to the growth of self-confidence, good manners, neat appearance, initiative and industry. Good guidance is always at work trying to match the differences in human nature with the differences in the outside world. But if guidance workers are expected to get results through mass education methods, little progress will be made in helping each individual to understand and use his talents. The vocational schools are getting boys and girls who have little command of the English language; far too large a number are poor spellers or below standard in reading and writing; many have inadequate or sub-standard speech habits. Many maladjustments of personality and of behavior are caused or aggravated by a failure in reading, which has resulted in retardation. We cannot really know the causes of learning problems until we gain a better understanding of the interrelationships between school learning patterns and behavior patterns. The Federal government, recognizing the need for personal guidance, has organized a most comprehensive counseling program from coast to coast for returning veterans. If we are to parallel this experiment, we must have more capable and better trained counselors to help pupils who will soon be competing for a livelihood.

IMPONDERABLES FOR GUIDANCE EXPERTS. We have been cautioned repeatedly that it is important for pupils to know they are wanted, that they have made acceptable achievement and that they have security with others about them in work, study or play. Experiences in social relationships are as necessary as activities in academic fields of work with tools and machines. How many of us really know whether our pupils are happy or whether they are disappointed or disillusioned? How many of us are really happy and contented with life as it is? Obviously, within a limited time, it is difficult for teachers or counselors to understand the drives, mental twists, social purposes and unrevealed motivating forces in human nature. Much that has passed for good guidance, therefore, may have been little more than piecemeal advising based upon listening to a recital of problems, or a study of records, or test results. None of these means may have value unless they are interpreted in terms of the whole person. The good counselor has ability to discover, recognize and interpret pupil needs and potentialities. When these techniques are applied in single cases, guidance of educational value should result.

The growth of any culture depends upon its transmission through teaching and learning. Without good guidance and dynamic leaders that capture the imagination of youth and inspire confidence, humility and goodness, these reorganizations of experience may fail to take root and grow. Since youth is a period of dreams, positive help should be given to prevent the mental and moral wandering that seems to go with the present machine culture. It is of little practical value to talk about vocational guidance unless our youth know what problems lie ahead of them and how to solve those problems. Our instructional program, representing a workable philosophy in action, may fail of lasting results unless ways are found to contemplate social and economic problems for which patterns of adjustment may be worked out.

If the guidance function can be organized and administered to assist education in the successful use of techniques of first-hand observation and scientific interpretation in the field of human relationships, a great forward step toward the development of group patterns of thought will be made in powers that are comparable to our demonstrated control over the physical world. Unless ways can be found to do more in the field of human relations, our claims about training for occupational competence and preparation for wholesome adjustment to adult life may not only lack credence, but they may be spurious. Instead of looking to experience as the great leveler, we should make greater efforts to give all pupils a realistic understanding of their special aptitudes, their weaknesses and their possibilities for success as good workers and as good citizens in a changing community.

FRANK H. PAINE Metropolitan Vocational High School

SOUND RECORDING EQUIPMENT FOR SCHOOLS

The coming months will see several new types of sound recording equipment made available for school use. Developed for the armed forces, some of these may have importance for teaching techniques. This report will try to indicate what educators may find on the market in the near future.

REQUIREMENTS FOR A SCHOOL RECORDING SYSTEM. Educators require three qualities in a sound-recording system for classroom use. The first of these is simplicity of operation. Teach-

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ers are not sound engineers. The ideal equipment for them is one in which they push a button and the machine infallibly does the rest. More elaborate devices simply will not be used by the average teacher, and require that a squad be trained in their operation by a teacher interested enough to master them.

The next requirement is a degree of fidelity suited to the purpose of the recording. "Fidelity" is a term interpreted as meaning a reproduction as faithful to the original as possible. Physicists express this quality by indicating the frequency range in cycles over which tones of different frequencies (pitch) will be reproduced at normal volume. Equipment intended primarily for reproducing speech is satisfactory if its response is flat (i.e., of equal volume assuming equal input volume) between 100 and 5,000 cycles. Equipment required to reproduce vocal and instrumental music should give a flat response between 50 and 8,500 cycles. Higher frequencies up to 10,000 cycles can be recorded, but many ears won't hear them anyway. Fidelity is a function of all parts of the equipment: the microphone, the amplifier, the recording unit, and the reproducing unit with its accessory pick-up, amplifier and speaker. A limitation in any one part limits the whole system to that floor or ceiling.

The third requirement is a price to fit pinched supply allowances. The new types of equipment described here are at present in the developmental stage, and both the prices and the characteristics of civilian models have not been settled. Manufacturers are keenly aware of the size of educational budgets, and are working to lower the cost of their apparatus. Since overall quality is so closely linked to price, we must not expect the moon for sixpence. But neither should we be asked a king's ransom for it, and I think it correct to say that good recording machines of most types will shortly be available in a price range of from one to three hundred dollars.

PHOTOGRAPHIC RECORDINGS OF SOUND. Of the three methods of sound recording used in present equipment the first is photographic recording on film, as used for many years in sound movies. This method translates sound vibrations into varying light intensities or varying widths of light-affected area to produce on the finished film areas of varying density or varying width, and the latter is then passed between an exciter lamp and a photo-electric cell, which converts the light impulses into electric energy operating an amplifier and speaker system.

Photo-sonic recording has these advantages: (1) High fidelity is easily obtained. (2) Copies of the original record are easily made by printing copies on other film. (3) It is the only method by which a sound track can be printed beside a photographic image to produce perfectly synchronized sound motion pictures. (4) The equipment is reasonably fool-proof, assuming a knowledge of where to place microphones for different pick-up jobs—speakers, soloists with accompaniment, choirs, orchestras, etc.—and how to regulate and balance input volume. This assumption, by the way, is a big one, but we are talking now of the equipment, not of recording studio practice. Teachers will find local radio stations very helpful in advising about the latter. (5) The sound track is not damaged by repeated replaying, although the film is subject to deterioration if not stored under proper conditions of temperature and humidity, and is further subject to mechanical damage in projection. The practical limit in length of uninterrupted recording on one machine using substandard (16 mm) film is usually 15 minutes; of uninterrupted reproduction, one hour.

On the other hand, photo-sonic recording equipment runs around $800 for good quality, with little immediate likelihood of a reduction, and the process requires developing a negative and printing it on film. This feature adds to the expense (a double film bill), and requires the services of a commercial film processor, delaying the playback. Furthermore, the film is subject to mechanical damage as noted above.

All in all, photo-sonic recording is likely to be limited for educators to the making of an occasional sound movie, where the sound is added by a commercial house, and is unlikely to be used in the school, or for sound recording per se.

MAGNETIC RECORDING. This method, while experimental for some time, is new as far as the commercial market is concerned. It converts sound into variations in electric current which differentially magnetizes suitable material in wire or tape form. The magnetized wire or tape is then run through a reproducer which converts the electric energy into amplified sound. There are several forms which this system can take. One uses a stainless steel wire; another a wire coated with a magnetizable substance. A third employs a metal tape, a fourth a metallized tape, while a fifth ingenious device uses a flat disc like a paper phonograph record, coated with a magnetizable

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substance, and capable of being folded and mailed as a talking letter to a friend with a similar machine.

Wire recorders have almost unlimited recording and playing time, dependent only on the size of the reel of wire; present regular models have a capacity of about one hour. Tape recorders have the same theoretical and present practical limits. The disc magnetic recorder is a three-minute job intended for voice recording and ear-phone reproduction only. Designed to sell for less than $50, this device may be of considerable value in speech correction work.

The fidelity of wire and tape recorders is a function of the speed at which the material passes through the recorder, other factors remaining the same: the faster the travel, the higher the fidelity. Since the wire or tape must be rewound for playing, the higher fidelity is gained at the expense of larger reels and longer waiting time before playback, although this last is rarely more than a minute or so in practice. At present, these recorders are planned for two degrees of fidelity. One intended for speech, with a cut-off at about 5,000 cycles, is expected to cost from one to two hundred dollars. The second, going to about 8,000 cycles, will cost upwards of $300.

The advantages of recording magnetically on either wire or tape are headed by the extreme simplicity of operation. The operator literally presses a button and what the mike hears the machine gets. There are no needles, no problems of depth of cut, no worry about changing records every five to fifteen minutes. Further advantages are (2) the truly immediate playback on the same machine that was used for recording; (3) the relative small size and genuine portability of the apparatus, unlike the equipment of the man who was demonstrating a large and obviously bulky playback. Asked if it were portable, he replied, "It must be—it has two handles!" (4) The recording may be electrically wiped off the wire completely, and a new recording made at once. (5) There is no hiss or needle chatter, as with records. (6) The wire will not corrode, nor the sound record fade, and the reproduction will be as faithful at the 1,000 playing as it was at the first. (7) Uninterrupted playing time is long.

The disadvantages of wire recording are these: (1) To get high fidelity requires larger reels and much faster wire travel, which in turn introduces engineering design problems, runs the cost up, and cuts down the playing time for a given length of wire. (2) To find the spot on the wire where a given item has been recorded requires

that a memorandum be kept of elapsed time or used wire length, and the spool run back to the indicated place. This is not so simple a task as with some other systems, and makes wire inconvenient for short recordings. (3) The wire may break. It may then be retied, but care must be taken to tie a neat knot, lest the wire tangle in operation. However, the risk here is probably less than that a phonograph record will be damaged in playing. (4) The recording must be played back on a machine identical in type to the one which made it. At present, with wire recorders few, this sharply limits the use of the wire record.

Tape systems have many of the advantages and disadvantages of wire. The equipment is identical in principle, size, and cost, and at present provides less fidelity (both in wire and tape) than do film or phonograph discs. The metallized paper tape has one advantage the wire does not have: it can be "edited" as movie film is, with sections cut out and reassembled with scotch tape. This will be a boon to social studies and English teachers, who wish to present portions of broadcast speeches or dramatizations to a class. Its disadvantages as compared to wire are its greater fragility, which may limit its top speed and hence its fidelity, and a present limitation in running time to about an hour—a limitation which may not weigh too heavily on teachers.

EMBOSSED FILM RECORDING. A third system of sound recording, also new to the commercial market, uses a cutting stylus to "engrave" a sound track on 35 mm film, which is then reproduced without processing by running it in the same machine past a playback head holding a long-playing needle. 50-foot loop of film accommodates 150 parallel sound tracks for a total playing time ranging from 1½ to 4½ hours, depending on the speed of film travel. The sound record may be played back by means of a track selector at once, without rewinding. Present fidelity is for speech only; in theory this could be stepped up for music, but there is a mechanical wear factor not present with magnetic recording.

By comparison with other recording systems, the embossed film method is a bit more difficult to operate, far more rugged than disc-cutters, easier in locating a given recorded section, about equal in fidelity, size and weight, and slightly less indestructible than wire, but sturdier than paper tape or phonograph records (1,000 playings are claimed for it, and if you still want to hear it after that, you're

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a wonder), and at present much more costly ($800) than magnetic or disc systems. Like wire or tape, records made on this system can be played only on the original machine or its twin.

DISC RECORDING. The last of the sound recording methods is the long familiar one of cutting a record. Acetate recordings give the greatest fidelity per dollar of equipment cost of any of the systems, and provide one feature no other system gives; namely, that the records, when cut on 12-inch or smaller blanks at 78 r.p.m., may be played on standard phonographs, thus giving them a range of usefulness unequalled in any other method. However, disc recording is the hardest to master of the various record making arts, and equipment giving faithful wow-free reproduction is heavy and bulky. Records are expensive, good quality 12-inch blanks costing $1.00 or a bit more. At 78 r.p.m., 12 inch records are limited to 5 minutes of playing time per side, so that for continuous recording it is necessary to have two cutting tables, running the cost up to between $300 and $500. For a permanent or semi-permanent installation, however, operated by persons willing to learn how to cut good records, this remains the best of the recording systems.

Summary

System	*Fidelity*	*Ease of Operation*	*Continuous recording time*	*Portability*	*Cost*	*Recommended use*
Photographic	High	Good	15 minutes*	Moderate	$800	Synchronized sound movies
Magnetic	Speech**	High	Several hours	Excellent	$150-$400	Continuous portable recording of speech
Embossed film	Speech**	Good	1½-4½ hrs.	Excellent	$800**	Continuous portable recording of speech
Disc	High	Low	5'@78, 12"* 15'@33⅓, 16"*	Poor	$100+	High fidelity fixed installation recording of music and speech.

* With one machine. ** At present.

VINCENT MCGARRETT
High School of Commerce

HOLDING THE EEL BY THE TAIL

It is unfortunate that none of the representatives of the thirty governments whose valuable advice he acknowledges suggested to Francis T. Miller that he provide that necessary implement, an index, to his panoramic *History of World War II*. Over a hundred chapters extending over 966 pages do indeed offer a comprehensive survey of the epoch-making events through which we have recently passed; but without an index to guide the reader through the labyrinth, one grimly recalls the indictment,

Anathema, and malediction
On certain authors of non-fiction!
Their brows a black and heinous sin decks
Because their books contain no index.
May they in search of reference,
Be forced to plow through volumes dense,
Indexless, when they're pressed for time.
Hail, punishment that fits the crime!

Indeed, there was one—Lord Campbell—who felt so strongly that the inclusion of an index is a duty not to be neglected that he proposed to present a bill in Parliament "to deprive an author who publishes a book without an index of the privilege of copyright, and moreover to subject him for his offense to a pecuniary penalty."

But even with an index, some books still fail to provide satisfactory clues to direct the callow amateur. A work, devoid of cross references and abounding in inverted subject headings, can drive one into a King Clode-frenzy. When the Royal Recorder (in Thurber's *White Deer*) confesses he can find nothing pertinent to the case of the disenchanted lady under Deer, the king bawls, "Look under Loss of Maidens' Memory! Look under L!"

"Loss in this special case comes under M", the Royal Recorder said.
"How does and can and could it?" thundered Clode.
"The proper listing, Sire, is . . . Memory, Maidens', Loss of . . . "

The *World Almanac*, anatomically different from other annuals in that its alphabetic list of subjects is at the *front* of the book (paper conservation has done away with that quondam initial section of advertisements for dandruff remover, muscle building and educational enrichment), can delay the questioning reader through lack of cross-references. Someone trying to collect a wager on the names of cabinet members naturally runs his finger along the *C's*. No entry. A flipping of pages to *United States—Cabinet*. No entry. But it *must* be listed somewhere under the forty-eight states! Fur-

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ther scouting, with furrowed brow. Yes, by the shade of mnemonic St. Wapniacl, here it is: *United States—Departments: State, Treasury, War.* . . .

Again, a statistics-minded researcher wants to know the number of casualties of the recent war. The *W's* yield fourteen entries indented under *War,* from *War criminals, Nazi, on Trial* to *Workers, In-migrant Housing,* with no mention of casualties. Nor can a reference be found under *Casualties.* Finally, under *World War II,* directly below subdivision *Berlin—Potsdam Conference,* the search comes to an end with *Casualties by Countries.*

A social studies reference book that can confuse the impatient and uninitiated pupil is the admirable *Dictionary of American History.* History books are usually arranged chronologically, and the student is accustomed to starting with the index in ferreting out a particular point. Unaware of the alphabetic arrangement of this set, he takes the index volume and applies himself to locating the *Monroe Doctrine.* It discourages him to find twenty-six analytic references (*Anglo-American relations; . . . reaffirmed by Polk; . . .* and the *Virgin Islands*) scattered throughout four volumes. As the gleaner picks his way about he can overlook entirely the 1000 word article in its alphabetic place in volume 4, for the separate articles do not appear in the index.

Commager's *Documents of American History,* its two volumes separately paginated and bound as one, does not offer swift convenience to the tyro, who little dreams that document number, not page number, is the key. Unless some strange fate compels him to look for *Abandonment of gold standard,* or *Bailey —v.Drexel Furniture Co.,* entries that head the two columns on the first page of the index, he is likely to overlook the tiny note, nowhere else repeated, bracketed under *Index*: ["The references in this index are to sections."]

Let us suppose that the reader is so interested in the Bailey-Drexel case that he fails to see THE WARNING, and notes only 431. He confidently turns to page 431, which, to his surprise, contains a combination of *Lincoln's Plan of Reconstruction,* and *The National Bank Act—June* 3, 1864. On the way back to check, he senses that the page numbers are acting peculiarly, and it dawns upon him that there are two sets of numbers. But page 431 of volume 2 offers *National Recovery Act, June* 16, 1933. A cry of despair brings the librarian, whose lifeline to the floundering youth is the table of contents, where document 431 is revealed as starting on

page 333 of volume 2. There at long last, is the furniture company.

We should not assume that our pupils know how to use that time-saving finding device, the index. A thorough and intelligent one is a lovesome thing whose beauties should be pointed out to our classes. And if we set them to finding quotations that pay tribute to "the baby figure of the giant mass of things to come at large," they will accuse (chronological by authors!) Bartlett of offering a bewildering mass of quotations on a page, their individual places unindicated by a 1, 2, 3 or an a, b, c!

IRMA SCHWEIKART Bronx High School of Science

VETERAN TRAINING IN THE VOCATIONAL HIGH SCHOOL

With the return of veterans, who are anxious to attain definite educational objectives in a minimum of time, the vocational school faces many new problems that must be met now. As a rule, the students have formed set opinions about social attitudes, moral ideals, occupational choices and cultural appreciations. In a program that is set up primarily for adolescents, improvement and successful adaptation by the adults will depend on such variable factors as maturity, flexibility, and willingness to cooperate in following academic and shop schedules.

HISTORY. Adult students have been admitted to classes at the Metropolitan Vocational High School since 1932 on the theory that the school should adapt itself to individuals needing guidance, or education on a secondary level. From 1932 to 1937 Morris E. Siegel and Franklin J. Keller emphasized the importance of giving information, guidance and skill activities when it would be most profitable to receive the instruction. At this same time the Academic Division of this school was experimenting with subject acceleration under a modified Dalton Plan that enabled 1500 unemployed adults to attend classes to earn credits in high school subjects or to receive coaching in one or more subjects.

The number of adults tapered off from 1937 until September 1945, when returning veterans sought permission to continue with their interrupted high school education. During the February term fifty-six members of the armed forces applied for admission to classes, carrying from five to eight subjects each. Of this number fourteen discontinued the courses before the end of the term. Six

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planned to operate businesses. One changed his mind and dropped out. One fulfilled graduation requirements and received his diploma on April 15. One was compelled to drop out because of a war-contracted sickness and five latecomers withdrew for the time being. Although many of the others suffered from economic hardships because of the slow arrival of subsistence checks, all managed to continue until the end of the term. Indications for this term are that seventy-five will be enrolled. Two home room advisers are kept busy with the details involved in counseling and guidance.

THE COUNSELING JOB. The counselor must be alert to help veterans evaluate interests and aptitudes for vocational and cultural courses that will fit them for professional, managerial, service or industrial careers. Most of these mature men have formed independent and different ideas about subject learning. If the veteran attended this school before entering the service, his cumulative record is checked to determine subject placement in academic and vocational subjects. It is necessary to determine the amount of credit to be given for basic training or Institute courses, the possible date of graduation and the probability of success in the field of choice. For new entrants more time is required to obtain data, but tentative programs are arranged.

Veterans are then assigned to home room advisers for guidance throughout their stay in school. An adviser cannot do a good job of counseling with more than twenty-five or thirty men. Individual conferences must be arranged for each one; records must be checked; entries made, and information must be obtained from all outside sources. It is difficult to chart a course for these men unless one can get them to talk about their future plans freely. Many are so eager to complete the high school course that they insist on taking eight subjects irrespective of previous low achievement records. In such cases both the counselor and the adviser must be firm in limiting the student to a program in which passing grades may be obtained.

While these veterans have created problems because of the limitation of plant facilities and teaching personnel, they have proved to be good students. They attend regularly, do their homework and take part in class discussions. Individual attention is necessary to learn the skills, attitudes and understandings in the courses that are really contributing to the personal needs of the veterans. Much of the credit for the successful school adjustment of many of these men is

due to the excellent cooperation given the school by members of the Veterans' Administration. It is hoped that some form of counseling service will be continued until it is fairly certain that each veteran is successfully serving society and himself; otherwise, much of this concerted effort will have been in vain.

COMPARATIVE FACTORS. While it has been impossible for the home room adviser to give more than one period for a personal interview with each student under the present setup, specific information about the problems, needs and plans of the members has been obtained. Of the forty-three interviewed, thirty-one were former students who wanted to continue. Of the remaining twelve, three were referred to the school for special courses by the Veterans' Administration; three were sent by other high schools; three were recommended by other students; the Board of Education and a former teacher each referred one. One chose this school for personal reasons.

Although the age range is from 18 to 40, thirty-one are in the group from 19 to 22. Twenty-four have served in the Navy and nineteen in the Army. Thirty were in service from two to three years. Among the Army men, thirteen hold ratings of private first class or technician, fifth grade. Thirteen of the Navy men hold ratings of seaman first class or petty officer. Of the forty-three, thirty-one have applied for subsistence payments.

All of these men plan to remain to earn a diploma. All except four have definite plans for the future. While the greater number have selected commercial photography as their occupational specialty, the others have chosen boat-building, radio-engineering, electrical engineering, textile engineering, carpentry, music, drafting, linotype operation, medicine and social service. While most of the choices have been within demonstrated ability levels, instances as the following give the counselors concern:

> Mr. X, a veteran of the Army Medical Corps, had made plans to apply for a premedical course at Columbia University despite such handicaps as an I.Q. of 85, a language difficulty, and an inability to get more than the lowest passing mark in his high school subjects. He is employed afterschool hours in one of the hospitals and he likes the work.
>
> When it was pointed out to him that his scholastic record might interfere with success in medicine and that it would be much easier to succeed as a laboratory technician, he readily acknowledged his mistake and changed his plans. He will take additional courses in chemistry

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and biology. He remarked that there is a vacancy in this field in the hospital and that he really has an interest in this type of work.

Other instances may be given to show how individuals will make decisions without studying the far-reaching effects or considering the possibility of success. If the counselor or adviser fails in checking these ill-advised selections, the veteran may fail to make satisfactory adjustments as a worker. Several wanted to become engineers even though they rated very poor in mathematics.

POINTS FOR CONSIDERATION. Over a period of years, it has been demonstrated that both adolescents and adults may work side by side to get an education. While the veterans are pleased with their courses, they want to complete them without delay. They are interested in making good grades. As an indication of the pride they take in their work, one of them stated that his wife "cracked the whip over him," while he was preparing for his midterms. He passed with good marks, too. Others have insisted on taking report cards home to show wives and mothers. There are, however, many important factors that must be thought through if this is to be a permanent program:

1. *The assignment of additional teachers as counselors and advisers.* The job of programming veterans is very complex and time-consuming. A good job cannot be done unless provisions are made for matters that take time, demand good judgment and require the cooperation of many sources.
2. *The assignment of teachers to act as tutors in cases where inhibitions, personality difficulties or learning disabilities slow up the progress in individual cases.* Some veterans become irritated if they cannot make the progress they think they should.
3. *The assignment of additional clerks.*
4. *The need for individual instruction.*
5. *The need for double periods in such courses as mathematics, science and language.* This plan involves administrative difficulties.
6. *Provisions for separate classes for adults preferring this arrangement.* Some veterans object to the "monotony of being with a bunch of kids" in a class. Others believe it would be a mistake to segregate groups. They consider it best to be regarded as persons rather than as veterans. Adolescents have profited much by association with these mature men of experience.

7. *Special facilities for veterans.* Many of them feel the need for "a smoke" at intervals. This is not possible with lavatory facilities planned for adolescents who are in the same classes.

The academic and vocational needs of returning veterans and displaced adults who are seeking a solution to the age-old problem of economic adjustment bring all of us face to face with a definite challenge. The vocational high school welcomes the opportunity to meet this challenge to prepare deserving workers to assume job responsibilities, or to be ready for new and better jobs in allied or different fields.

FRANK H. PAINE *and* AARON N. SLOTKIN
Metropolitan Vocational High School

ENGLISH INSTRUCTION THAT BUILDS CHARACTER

As teachers of English we need continually to reexamine our aims, objectives, and actual practices in an attempt to do better those good things we have all along been trying to do. As the material world about us cracks and crumbles, two things become necessary: a larger spiritual domain as a sanctuary for the individual soul and a strong defense against the inroads of materialism on the spiritual life of man. There must ever be in our teaching an outlook toward high hills and green meadows.

ETHICAL VALUES. Today the problems of young people for social and personal adjustment are particularly difficult. In addition to providing relief from the emotional strain engendered by the wake of a war the lessons we teach should help our students develop moral fortitude and philosophic calm. For example, in Stephen Crane's poem:

THE WAYFARER

The wayfarer,
Perceiving the pathway to truth,
Was struck with astonishment.
It was thickly grown with weeds
"Ha," he said,
"I see that none has passed here
In a long time."
Later he saw that each weed

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Was a singular knife.
"Well," he mumbled at last,
Doubtless there are other roads."

we might point out to our students the fact that in the first flow of enthusiasm we make rash resolves, resolves which the obstacles of actual life situations make difficult of attainment. Many applications of such a theme are possible. There is the thought that persistence and perseverance stimulate success: "Finish one picture and you will be a painter," as Sir Joshua Reynolds used to say. There is also the possible interpretation that in a long and serious crisis as this present era gives promise of being, the seemingly slow progress to peace enervates the pioneering spirit by a process of attrition to a point where weak-hearted individuals may give up and soothe their consciences by repeating, "Doubtless there are other roads." And there are other possible interpretations which may be designed to strengthen the moral fibre of our growing youth.

OPEN-MINDEDNESS. Further, open-mindedness, until sufficient facts are gathered to give the basis for a valid opinion, should be encouraged. A healthy skepticism can be generated in the minds of our students. They are sometimes too ready to believe the printed page, and they fail to test ideas and opinions by common sense. Paper does not refuse ink. Neither does a microphone edit or correct the skillfully contrived language of a deceiver.

If, then, we accept this point of view, teaching the importance of using language carefully and honestly becomes daily more necessary. Any teachers who is serious about teaching the meaning of language and feels the need for a sound approach to this problem may find his thinking clarified by a practical consideration of the following examples:

If you ask a class to tell you where the United States comes in the list, first, second, third, or last, on the basis of the following state ment:

"No country in the world has better democratic institutions than the United States of America,"

the students, or at least a majority of them, will tell you that the United States comes first. When you then state that no blackboard in the room is wider than this blackboard (pointing) and conclude therefrom that "this is the widest blackboard in the room," they will be both amazed and enlightened. At least some of them. For

the rest you will still have to explain what you mean and what you are driving at. This statement is carefully designed to lead you to a conclusion planned by the speaker in advance. If you later discover the truth, you can bring no charge against the author of the statement. What he said was not the same as your interpretation of what he said. Trick statements like these which predispose the hearer to given conclusions are common enough to warrant special attention in English classes.

For example, a current advertisement informs the reader, "No aspirin can do more for you than ———— asprin." It takes a shrewd student to remind you and the class that on the basis of that statement no aspirin can do less for you.

Moreover, we owe it to our students to remind them of the opera star who persuaded us Americans via the billboards that cigarettes did not hurt his throat. The implication was that he used them and suffered no ill effects. The fact is that he is a nonsmoker.

The Delphic oracle was perhaps without a paragon in the ambiguous use of language to achieve a worthy or unworthy end. When a warlike king was told that a great host would be destroyed when his army crossed a certain river, he assumed that he would annihilate his enemy. To his discomfiture he was defeated in battle.

It is hardly too much to say that unless we educate our students to use their common sense in the analysis and interpretation of this kind of language we are depriving them of part of their educational birthright.

CONCISE STATEMENTS. We ought also to inculcate the ability to interpret correctly proverbs and hard sayings. This is a definite skill little cultivated in the schools of America. When we come across in a series of literary selections something that is striking and unusual and at the same time baffling to comprehension, we ought to insist our students interpret it. Consider the following, each of which appears on a side blackboard under the caption, *"Watch This Spot."* (There is a different selection every day. If the students ask about it, and they usually do, we take a few minutes out to consider it.) These items were carefully selected because each presents a thought in language difficult enough to make interpretation an exercise in thinking.

1. The winds are always on the side of the ablest navigators.
2. He is every other inch a gentlemen.

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3. He is rusting on his laurels.
4. A shipwrecked sailor buried on this coast
   Bids you set sail.
   Full many a bark ere he was lost
   Weathered the gale.
5. To be great is to be misunderstood.
6. The child is father to the man. (This is one of the most difficult items for students to interpret correctly).
7. When the Devil was sick, the Devil a monk would be,
   When the Devil was well, the devil a monk was he.
8. What a man earns in the daytime goes into his pocket.
   How he spends what he earned goes into his character.
9. A little learning is a dangerous thing
   Drink deep, or taste not the Pierian spring.
10. God made him and therefore let him pass for a man.

The incidental character-building opportunities of this type of problem justify the time spent in class discussion of their meanings.

VOCABULARY. In addition, the problems of vocabulary should also challenge our serious attention. Since John Smith wrote his history of the Virginia Colony our language has grown to almost three quarters of a million terms. If therefore we continue to spend a great deal of time on the vocabulary of authors like Chaucer, Spenser, Milton, and even Shakespeare, whose works abound in words no longer used, to the consequent neglect of contemporary writers who use wisely and well the modern vocabulary, have we any justification for criticising the poverty of our students' vocabularies, or their lack of understanding of today's problems? These great authors are worthy of serious study because of the breadth of their knowledge and the profundity of their treatment of common human problems. However, in our handling of them in class, we shall do well to substitute modern terms for obsolete and obsolescent usages which may obscure the significance of a passage we really want students to interpret and comprehend.

CONTEMPORARY LITERATURE. Just a word more about contemporary literature. A wise student once remarked to his teacher that a young man who in the time of Socrates and Plato followed the usual pedagogical advice and spent all his time with the classics to the exclusion of his contemporary masters of the art of expression, was not gaining thereby the best education. A greater

than Shakespeare may be entertaining the "rabble" today minus the approbation of the dryasdust professors. It is probably too sadly true that most Athenians only knew about Plato and Socrates while a few appreciated them. Too many of us commit the mistake of J. G. Lockhart in his review of *Endymion* in *Blackwood's Magazine*: *"It is a better and wiser thing to be a starved apothecary than a starved poet; so back to the shop, Mr. John, back to the plasters, pills, and ointment boxes."*

In short, if we are going to do anything at all about building worth-while character we must meet young people today on the common ground of contemporary literature and at the same time show them how the classics we teach throw light on modern, social, and personal problems.

DAVID T. ARMSTRONG Murray Hill Vocational High School

ERRATUM

The Editor regrets that in the *October* 1946 issue an omission occurred in the article entitled *A SAMPLE STUDY OF HIGH SCOOL INTELLIGENCE* by Benedict T. Lassar. Those readers interested in the conclusions expressed in that article will, no doubt, like to see the table giving a summary of the numerical results on which the conclusions were based. We give below the Table 1 which was incompletely printed in the October issue.

TABLE 1

SUMMARY OF NUMERICAL RESULTS

Group Measured	*Number of Cases*	*Mean*	*Median*	*Interquartile Range*
Entire Sample	1,561	106.9	106.6	14.7
1st Year	314	106.2	105.4	14.1
2nd Year	258	107.1	106.5	15.8
3rd Year	387	108.0	108.0	13.5
4th Year	602	106.4	106.1	16.7
All commercial cases in sample	436	102.0	101.6	13.5
All academic cases in sample	1,125	108.8	108.5	14.1

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ECONOMIC CITIZENSHIP CLASS FOR "GENERAL" STUDENTS

The problem of providing a modified program for pupils who cannot do the normal academic work or who, because of personality deficiencies are maladjusted to their school environment, has been a challenging and insistent one in our academic high school. In an attempt to meet this challenge, we in Bushwick High School have introduced a number of courses organized with the needs of these students in mind. These include "general art," "general music," "general English" and "economic citizenship." In this paper I shall discuss economic citizenship, a course that I have given for the past three terms.

AIMS. The aims of this course can be divided into two groups:

(a) The minimum aims include such things as improving attendance, reducing lateness and cutting habits of these students, keeping them out of classes where they might be discipline problems, and aiding them in the preparation of their programs for the following terms.

(b) The maximum aims would be the adjustment of their personalities to the school and life situations by developing positive attitudes, self-confidence, and the feeling of success in some area of work.

STUDENTS. The class is made up of students who for any one reason or combination of reasons fail in all subjects in their first term in high school. The class started with a register of 28 and now has a register of 25. The mean I. Q. for this group based upon the Terman Group Test of Mental Ability is 83 with a range of 64 to 104. The mean percentile rating for the group in total adjustment ("total adjustment" includes self and social adjustment) as determined by the California Test of Personality—Secondary form A is 27 with a range of 5 to 70. The class includes two chronic truants, one student who has been suspended from school and is now under psychiatric treatment, and at least one student who is on probation from the courts. A number of these students have physical defects such as cardiac condition, bad teeth, or uncorrected faulty vision. Several have at one time or another had serious accidents. One of the group is a serious stuttering case. Each one of these students at the beginning of the term was a total failure in

school work either because of low I. Q. or some physical or emotional disturbance. Many of these students have never known success in any field and certainly not in their school work. They have reacted to this situation by truancy, introversion, extroversion, antisocial behavior, antagonism to authority, and lack of interest in school.

PROCEDURE. The students were told frankly at the beginning of the term that we were striving for better school citizenship on their part and in our studies the keynote would be the word *TRY*. We understood and attempted to get the students to see that everyone could not be a scholar, but that everyone could use the abilities he had and that we all could and should TRY. For many of these students this was a new thought and some who had long ago stopped trying began to participate in classroom activities. The most important teaching problem is the need for continual motivation. The interest span of this type of student is very limited. We have therefore used supervised study, games, discussions, and oral reading. The following games which we devised have been found worthwhile —"Tracy," "Eco," "Baseball," and "Mr .Anthony."

Outline of Course

1. During the first week the students write their autobiographies. This is helpful in getting to know something about their background, schooling, home life, likes and dislikes, hopes, ambitions, and fears.

2. The second step is the administration of a battery of tests including Terman Group Test of Mental Ability, California Test of Personality, and the Washburne Social Adjustment Inventory. The results of these tests are used as the basis of individual consultation with the students, or the weekly "Mr. Anthony" Program or in adjusting the student to the regular class work.

3. After this we were ready for study of Bloom's *Economic Citizenship*. The books were kept in the room, distributed daily and used as the basis of our daily lesson.

4. Some time before the official teachers were required to prepare program cards for their classes, each of the students conferred with the subject teacher to decide upon his program for the following term. The results of these conferences were sent to the official teacher concerned.

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5. After the first part of Bloom's book was covered, we started work on Shiveley's book, *Personal Analysis and Vocational Problems.* Most of our energies here are devoted to a consideration and discussion of case histories which are included as problems in this book. These cases provide excellent material inasmuch as the student can recognize himself or one of his classmates in many of the problem stories.

6. Each Friday we play "Mr. Anthony." A group of three judges is selected from the class to hear a case presented by a member of the class who has some problem or question. The teacher is the announcer for the program and acts also as a guide. The audience is permitted to ask questions and make recommendations. Specific answers to problems can sometimes be achieved and general principles of conduct be evolved for the entire group. Some problems considered this term were—truancy, nail-biting, conflict with parents, difficulties with teachers, general appearance, overweight condition, personality, etc.

EVALUATION. This course is a beginning and only a beginning in aiding this type of student. It is extremely difficult to get a quantitative analysis of achievement with a group of this kind. It is hard to judge whether better attendance, decreased lateness, fewer "cutting" records, and improved behavior have been effected by this class, or by a maturation process which would have continued in any case, or by some other unknown factors. There have, however, been noticeable changes for the better in many students.

The best method I can think of to evaluate the course is to give some typical answers by the class to the question, "How has economic citizenship helped me?"

1. *"Last term I cut school almost every day, but this term I only cut two times."*
2. *"I think I have more courage now."*
3. *"I have been absent only four times this term. I find Economical Citizenship interesting and it is one of the reasons I attend school regularly."*
4. *"Last term I was not getting along too well in any of my subjects; I failed them all. This term I am getting along very good for I have passed everyone of them."*
5. *"I've stopped biting my nails and I haven't got much of a temper in school but still have at home."*

6. *"Last term I never raised my hand to answer questions, but this term I answer questions, take notes, and I am really trying."*
7. *"I always had the feeling that I wanted to quit school at the age of sixteen, but this class has helped me to forget that idea entirely."*
8. *"Last term I used to die a thousand deaths when the teacher called on me to read. . . . Whereas this term I feel sure of myself."*

If we make allowances for the students' desire to please the teacher, these comments still speak for themselves and indicate that the experiment has been worthwhile and should be continued and expanded as teachers' time becomes available. If even a few are helped to a more normal school life and improved personality, there is a positive gain for the school, the child, and the community.

ARTHUR FINKELSTEIN Bushwick High School

RECENT VISUAL AIDS FOR INTERCULTURAL EDUCATION

"If Hitler could do it, why couldn't we?—For it was Adolf Hitler, apparently, who first demonstrated on a grand scale the effectiveness of 16 mm. non-theatrical films as media for influencing human behavior and moulding human ideals. Why couldn't we plan to use the informational or documentary film with equal effectiveness as a tool for good, to help the democratic educational process turn the widely advertised democratic ideals into realities?"*

This "Why" presents a challenge to teachers, and, having accepted it, there is the problem of the "How" and the "Where". As to the "How", the best values and outcomes have been derived by the use of these films for film forums, to form the basis of discussion, to provide a common ground. As to the "Where", the following is a selected list of recently produced visual aids, films, and slidefilms on this topic. And for the teacher, interested in these materials of instruction, it is suggested she acquaint herself with the following publications in the visual field, where up-to-the-minute listings will be found.

* "Film Forum Review"—Fall 1946.

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Educational Screen—64 East Lake St., Chicago, Ill.
See and Hear—University of Wisconsin, 1204 W. Johnson St., Madison, Wis.
Film Forum Review—Institute of Adult Education, Teachers College, N. Y. C.
Film World—465 Fifth Ave., N. Y. C.
The 16 Millimeter Reporter—545 Fifth Ave., N. Y. C.
Teacher's Manual—Coronet Magazine—Chicago, Ill.

The House I Live In—10 Min., sound—Brandon Films, 1600 Broadway—Rental, $1.50.

The R.K.O. film starring Frank Sinatra. A powerful emotional appeal for racial and democratic tolerance. The famous song by Earl Robinson which gives the film its name is sung by Frank Sinatra. A direct preachment to youth to learn to live together and to develop proper attitudes.

* * *

Man, One Family—17 min., sound—British Information Service—Rental, Film Publishers, 12 East 44th Street, N. Y. C.—Rental, $2.50.

A refutation of the theory of a master race. It breaks down the common and persistent belief that there is such a thing as racial distinction. A plea for better human relations throughout the world in terms of common interests and needs. Scientific advisors: Dr. Julian Huxley and Prof. J. B. S. Haldane.

* * *

The Glass Bell—11 min., sound—A. F. Films, Inc., 1600 Broadway, N. Y. C.—Rental, $1.75.

The story of the common man, Pierre Dupont, who but for the grace of God might have been Tommy Atkins, Juan Lopez, or Joe Doakes, who wanted to live quietly and peacefully. Then the Nazis came and Pierre Dupont, who might have been you or me, was subjected to the Nazi way of life; every act was controlled and his thinking, reading, and listening confined to their ideologies, breeding grounds of intolerance and prejudices. An enacted film on the causes of fascism, designed for audience discussion.

* * *

Teamwork—15 min., sound—Award Films, 381 Fourth Ave., N. Y. C.—Rental, $2.50.

A War Department orientation film written by Carlton Moss who toured all the fighting fronts to film on-the-spot shots of Negro and White Teamwork in the major campaigns. The film opens with the Nazi High Command's strategy of "Divide and Conquer" against America—a mongrel nation—and then proceeds to show how Protestant and Catholic, Jew and Gentile, rich man and poor man, black and white, all hit the same beach under the

same enemy fire. The film concludes with the positive implications that Teamwork can also win the peace.

* * *

The Color of a Man—13 min., Sound—Congregational Missionary Assn., 287 Fourth Ave., New York City—Rental, $7.50.

This film produced by Julien Bryan of the International Film Foundation is outstanding in its plain-spoken approach to one of America's bitterest and most shameful problems. As the film opens, two shadows of men are shown on a Southern field. The camera picks up the white man and the commentator says, "This man is free, white and twenty-one." The camera turns to the Negro. The commentator says' "This man is twenty-one." The film states the danger in the American treatment of the Negro and calls for a change. It ends with the question whether this is truly one nation, indivisible with liberty and justice for all.

* * *

One People—12 min., Sound-Color—Anti-Defamation League of the B'nai B'rith, 212 Fifth Ave., New York City—Rental, $3.50.

An animated color film with narration by Ralph Bellamy. It tells the panoramic story of the settling of America by groups of every national origin. It is a chronicle of American cultural backgrounds, a reminder that our country's greatness is a result of the contributions of many races, creeds, and nationalities.

* * *

Americans All—15 min., Sound—March of Time Forum Edition—Rental, $5.00.

The story of racial and religious hatred in America and how knowledge, mobilized as in Springfield, Mass., can combat it. Stresses true democracy based on mutual respect.

* * *

Greater Victory—22 min., Sound—Association Films, 347 Madison Ave.—Rental, $3.00.

Produced in cooperation with the National Conference of Christians and Jews. A dramatic story film featuring Louis Calhern. Shows that while we have defeated Nazi-Fascist arms, the Greater Victory will be when we have completely defeated their ideas and when our different racial and religious groups can work and live together in harmony.

* * *

The Cummington Story—18 min., Sound—Brandon Films—Rental, $2.50.

The story of a group of European refugees in Cummington, Mass., a New England community. It depicts the growth of understanding between peoples of different backgrounds. Produced by O.W.I. Overseas Branch.

* * *

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Don't Be A Sucker—20 Min., Sound—U. S. Army—Apply directly.

Depicts the techniques used by Hitler to divide peoples. It makes a plea to us to be on guard against the same techniques in this country.

* * *

Brotherhood of Man—11 Min., Sound-Color—Brandon Films—Rental, $3.00.

Based on *"Races of Mankind."* The scientific facts of the biological oneness of all peoples explained in animation. Explodes the Nazi race theory of the "superiority" of certain races.

* * *

Slide Films

We Are All Brothers—54 frames—N.Y.U. Film Library—Sale only, $2.00.

A revised edition of the original version, the unit stresses the fact that all peoples are fundamentally the same; that there is no such thing as an Aryan race, no such thing as a Jewish race; that varying levels of intelligence and varying character traits are found in all races. Finally, that all men are brothers. This film strip is based on the pamphlet *Races of Mankind.* A written commentary and a copy of the pamphlet accompany the film strip.

* * *

Forward All Together—80 frames—Film Publishers, 2 East 44th St., New York City—Sale, $2.50.

Produced by the Council against Intolerance. This film strip gives the story of the backgrounds of the American people, of anti-discrimination, Jim Crow, Anti-Semitism, discrimination against other groups and how we can combat it.

* * *

Sound Slide Films

The Man in the Cage—Film Alliance of America, 1600 Broadway, New York City—Rental, $2.50—Sale, $17.50.

Dramatic cartoon story that brings home understanding of the need for a permanent F.E.P.C. The man in the cage has certain attitudes toward people whose color, religion, or place of birth are not like his.

* * *

"Friendship Kit"—Popular Science Publishing Co., Audio-Visual Division, 353 Fourth Ave., New York City.

A group of audio-visual teaching aids based on Irving Caesar's book *Sing a Song of Friendship.* These songs stress the importance of world friendship and human rights, and range in subject matter from racial intolerance to a plea that we make the world of tomorrow, today.

The kit consists of:

1) 5 color Teach-O-Filmstrips, $5.00 each.
2) An album of 4 Teach-O-Discs, 12-inch double-face, $12.00.
3) The book "Sing a Song of Friendship," $1.50.

Total Sales Price—$38.50.

ESTHER BERG

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Books

Democratic Human Relations, Promising Practices in Intergroup and Intercultural Education in the Social Studies, edited by Hilda Taba and William van Til, Sixteenth Yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies, Washington, D. C., 1945, xv 366 pp., $2.00.

In this yearbook the National Council for the Social Studies presents for consideration a problem the study of which is admittedly still in its infancy. So urgent and vital is the topic discussed, however, that one can hardly think of a better theme for this volume.

For many years, too many years, Americans have indulged themselves in the comfortable dream of a "Melting Pot," a rather oddly-shaped pot with two openings insead of one. Regardless of the dissimilarity of the group types put in on one end, the final product emerging at the other end was always identical with a certain norm that was supposed to represent the "typical American," (and no one has yet given a satisfactory profile of that supposed norm). It followed naturally that since the new individual was indistinguishable from the members of earlier American society he was thoroughly acceptable to that society, and would lose himself in it. In time he would become an earnest deliverer of Independence Day orations and a staunch devotee of ham and eggs and apple pie.

In retrospect, it is difficult to see how this notion ever acquired such prevalence. On all sides one could see evidences of group tensions and hatreds. The Negro problem, probably the greatest problem of all, was always with us; hyphenated societies go back for decades; the national diet has never undergone a "gleichschaltung"; there has been no fusion of cultures; and in the epithets that one could daily hear flung about there was an abundance of evidence that, far from having submerged, and perhaps sublimated, their differences, our citizens were very conscious of the dissimilarities between them and their neighbors, and were developing inferiority or superiority complexes along those lines. Whether these differences were of race, religion, economic status, cultural tradition, or national background, or any combination of these characteristics, intergroup relations were always marked by a regression of attitudes ranging from passive disdain to dislike to contempt to hatred and to outright persecution. This is the problem the editors aim to study and to help solve.

The book is divided into three sections:

Part I deals with the purposes of intergroup and intercultural education, including a consideration of curriculum planning and advisable methodology.

Part II is devoted to a description of the actual practices being employed in the schools of the nation, based on the findings of nine observers sent to various school systems and on three hundred study outlines and reports sent in by teachers and supervisors.

Part III contains an analysis of basic terms and concepts in the field, a discussion and critique of progress made thus far, and a comprehensive, descriptive bibliography.

The editors say that the educator who believes in intercultural education possesses three weapons that will bring about success in his efforts: "(1) the democratic way of life, (2) the religious tradition of western culture, and

(3) the findings of scientific inquiry." The teacher must implement these ideas to achieve six major aims: "(1) to help students to feel the need for a sense of values aid to formulate these values; (2) to foster desirable human relationships in students' daily living; (3) to help all, majority and minority groups, to participate fully in American life; (4) to better human relations in the community through educational procedures; (5) to share with young people the findings of the social and physical sciences; (6) to develop critical thinking."

A study of the problems involved in planning curricula and concomitant activities follows. Here certain basic truths must quickly be recognized. No over-all plans for promoting better human relations can be devised and installed on a wide basis. Tensions differ from locality to locality, and require a correspondingly different approach in each case. Hence the program will have to be made on the spot by the people who will use it. Teachers have to acquire a better background in anthropology, sociology, and social psychology to be equipped to handle the teaching materials. Traditional content and routine teaching will not achieve the changes in human beings which the aims in this field involve. America is under the scrutiny of the world as a prototype of democratic human relations. We cannot afford to fail.

Intercultural education cannot be considered apart from the total educational picture. Therefore the same rules that apply to general curriculum construction and teaching techniques will apply here too. Content must be meaningful in terms of the students' own experiences, and it must be vitalized by constant actual opportunities to live the principles they are learning. The community must be utilized to the fullest. The printed page, while necessary for the rapid learning of certain basic concepts, can never by itself induce the better life. Only when different groups mingle with each other, thus getting the opportunity to see how much more alike they are than different, will the aims of intercultural education be realized. Throughout the process they must be guided by a teacher who is at the same time sympathetic, idealistic and realistic. The editors are able to cite many cases where such an approach produced the desired results.

Inevitably the question must arise as to just how best to include intergroup education into the total curriculum. Rejected at once is the sporadic reference to the subject. Careful, detailed planning is of the essence. There are, in general, three approaches. (1) The incidental approach capitalizes upon an immediate incident of interest, or the celebration of a special week or day. While such a program can be very interesting and meaningful, its brevity and lack of continuity with what preceded and what follows militates against its effectiveness. It seves best as a motivation for a more comprehensive program. "Good planning involves comprehensive exploration, not opportunism." (2) Pervasive emphasis provides for a continuous emphasis throughout the usual program with no special focusing on topics of intergroup relations. All teachers in all subjects must use this method to make it achieve its maximum effectiveness. The use of this approach avoids an overemphasis on specific minority groups. "It gives a chance for the integration of human relationships into the common web of ideas and problems

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concerning ourselves and our society." It does not add new courses or units. However, there is the danger that in schools where the inertia of tradition and routine is strong, the occasions for such incidental teaching may never be utilized. (3) Specific units of study may be introduced to focus attention on certain topics, issues or problems. Such units bring together ideas which may have been scattered through various subjects at different times. There is a great opportunity for rounded consideration of a problem. This direct approach helps guard against avoiding controversial topics. However, some claim that such an approach may unrealistically isolate a problem. The editors hold no brief for any one of these methods, but seem to incline to a combination of all three. The most successful teacher will probably find that he has varied his plans, techniques, methods and approaches—utilizing in any specific case those which were best suited to it.

Testing the results in the instruction of attitudes has always been a difficult problem. This volume does not have much to contribute in the way of a really effective set of tests. Certainly the need is great.

The bibliography, to which the editors devote fifty-seven pages, is excellent. The literature is grouped along subject and mental levels, with books, pamphlets and illustrative materials arranged for teachers, and for students at various grade levels. It is indispensable for the classroom teacher and the curriculum planner.

It is obvious that a tremendous amount of work remains to be done—in the improvement of materials, in the improvement of instruction and in the removal of community prejudices which often hamper the work of the teacher. Only too often the sincere teacher is unable to carry out a full program of intercultural education because he finds himself far in advance of an unwilling community. He must then undertake to educate the adults as well as the children—not an easy task. Case studies cited in the yearbook show that there are enough such instances to constitute a problem. Nor should one get the impression that all teachers desire such a program. Reports show that there are many lazy, indifferent, incompetent and prejudiced teachers who have to be brought into line.

It is the opinion of this reviewer that this yearbook is must reading, not only for social studies teachers, but for all teachers. There is an opportunity, and an obligation, for all to take part in the work of promoting democratic human relations. Success in this endeavor may very well be the determinant of the success of our entire educational system. Of what value is it to teach spelling if the pupil will then proceed to spell out words of hate? to teach mathematics if the student will use the skills acquired to compare the I.Q.'s of northern whites and southern negroes and arrive at a conclusion of white supremacy? to teach history if the student will carry away the notion that the immigrant has always been a pensioner and never a contributor? Effective intercultural and intergroup education is a challenge to our schools. It is the new educational frontier—and this frontier can be won if we bring to it the same enterprise, courage and co-operation that have conquered all of our other frontiers.

BERNARD GREENBERG

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